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SEPT.—OCT.

NUMBER.

ILLUSTRATED.



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By HENRY STEAD.

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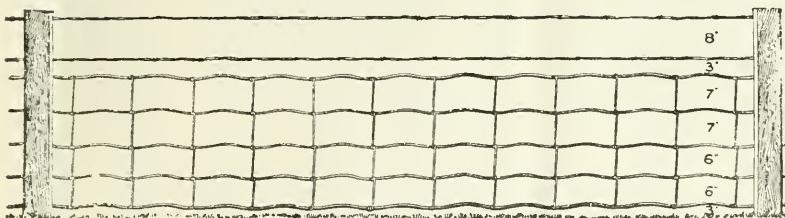
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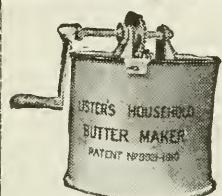
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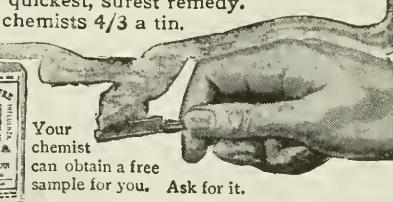
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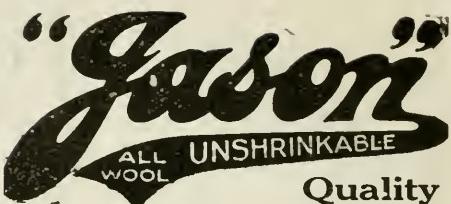
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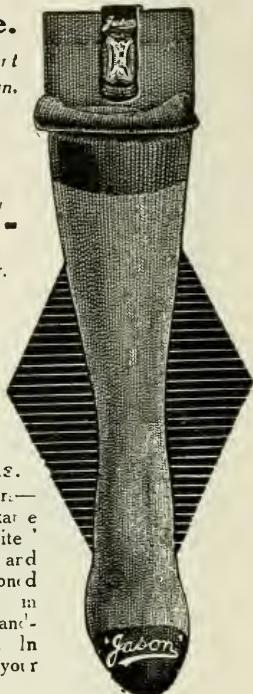
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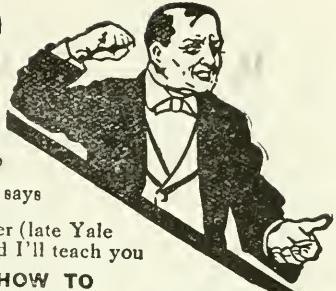
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DESPITE the vigorous policy he has adopted, the great improvements he has made in the magazine, and the many new readers he has secured, there is still a very widespread idea throughout the country, held by those who long ago resented the narrow outlook referred to above, that, as the name is the same, the policy and control is still the same. Others, judging solely by its title, think that it is purely a literary magazine, not a popular one in any sense of the word.

TN order to show quite plainly that the Review, whilst retaining the ideals of its founder, is a live publication, quite independent of any other magazines published either in this country or at home, it has been decided to alter the title by prefixing the name of the founder and ultimately dropping the last portion, so that in future it will be known as STEAD'S REVIEW.

WE are confident that this alteration will estrange none of our present readers, but will call striking attention to the new programme to be adopted. This particular number is necessarily chiefly made up of articles dealing with war topics. At a time like this, nothing else is wanted, but this merely delays the new features which we had intended to start this month. Next month we will again publish articles dealing largely with the war, all topical, all alive, and different to what is being given elsewhere. In that number, though, we start some of the new Features which will add interest to the magazine, make it more popular, and of more general usefulness.

WE want, in a word, to make STEAD'S REVIEW more and more a national magazine. It was the first notable Review to be published in Australia. It has always been the best, but we want to make it still more useful and more popular. You can help us to do this by bringing this number to the notice of your friends. Though we intend to make it more national, we hold always before us the original idea the magazine was founded to further—the union of the Empire and the English-speaking race.

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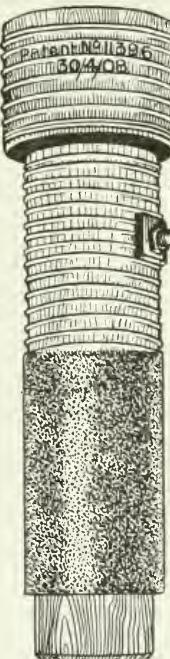
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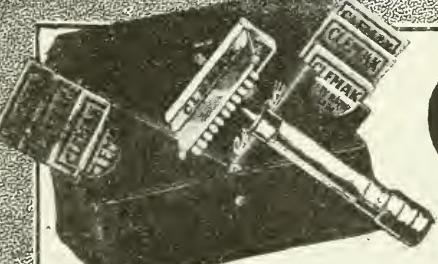
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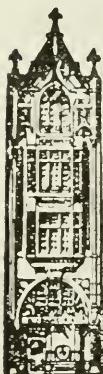
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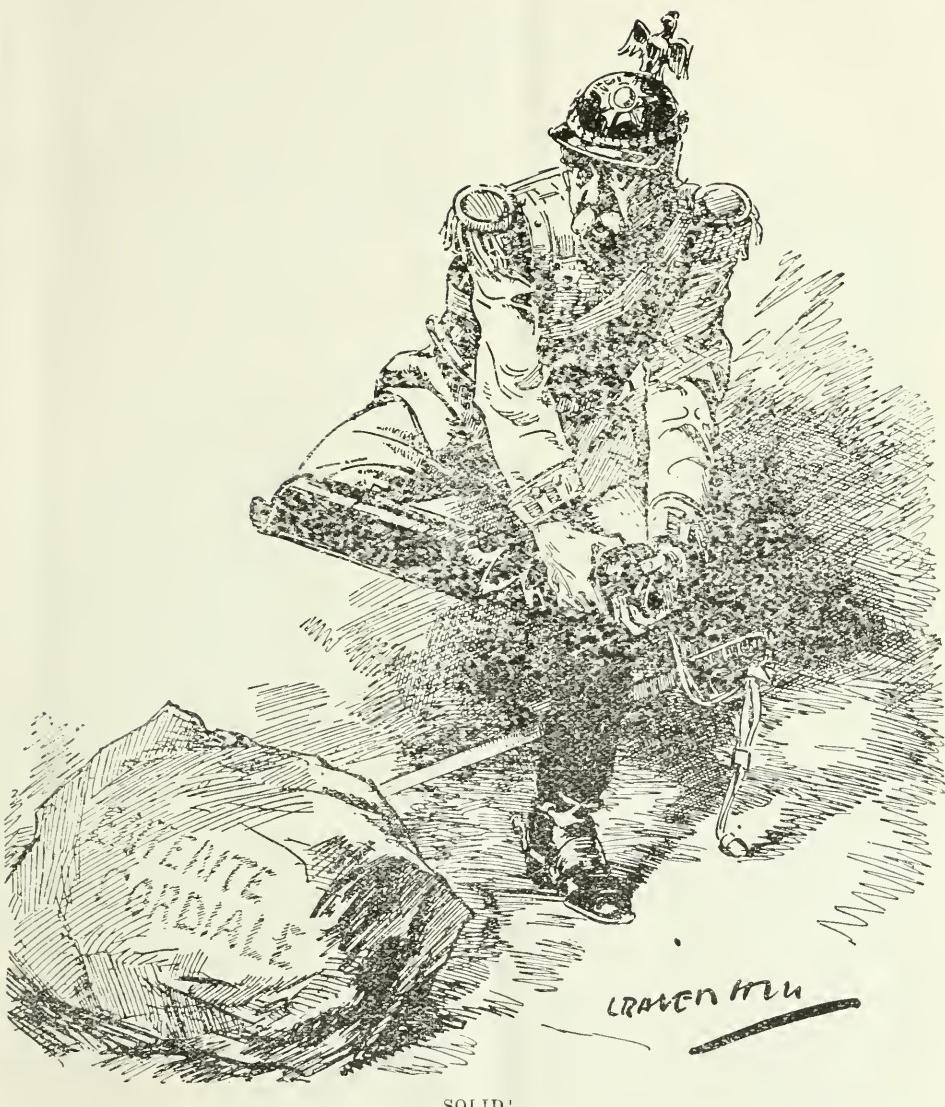
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(Craven Hill's famous cartoon in London *Punch*, of August 2, 1911, at the time of the Morocco crisis.)



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 See article, page 804.)

[Specially drawn for Stead's Review.]

STEAD'S REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY

HENRY STEAD.

JOTTINGS ON THE WAR.

The war has cut us off absolutely from the rest of the world so far as news is concerned. We hear nothing about Mexico; there is no word about events in China. Nothing comes from the United States, and we hear only of South America in connection with the war. For this reason, instead of giving the usual comments on the events of the world, we publish a few jottings on the war. The papers have contained nothing but war cables for a month and more. Every day experts have told eager readers all about the war, and although military experts—like all experts—differ greatly, everyone knows the main features of the struggle. We shall not, therefore, go into any detailed description of the actual fighting, but only give some general comments upon the situation.

A Grievous Disappointment.

It seems unbelievable that when last I wrote in the Review on the war, it had hardly begun. We appear to have lived through an eternity since then. Fortunately the terrible anxiety of the last few weeks is relieved, thanks solely to the Russian achievements against Austria. With her Ally smashed, Germany must send troops to defend her Eastern frontier, and she can only get them in sufficient numbers by detaching them from the armies which have been successful in forcing their way to the very gates of Paris. The result of this weakening in the west is already being seen, for the French, who have hitherto not been able to make any real stand against the German onslaught, have now really driven back the invaders, and should force them ere long out of France. The most grievous disappointment of the war has been the way in which the French troops have failed to

hold back the Germans. We were told that they were magnificently armed, splendidly trained, and had the highest *morale*. We find them inferior in artillery to the Germans, and it is the British Expeditionary Force which on more than one occasion saved them from being enveloped by the oncoming hordes of German soldiery. Those of us who have lived in Germany know that it is no idle boast of the Kaiser that his army is the finest in the world. Not only is it the best, it is backed up by a marvellous organisation, too rigid perhaps, but terribly efficient, which cares for the fighting men. When this machine came up against the French armies, only one thing could happen.

Britain's Stubborn Soldiers.

I have consistently maintained, since the outbreak of war, that England's work was on the sea, and that for some time at any rate she did not count on

land. France would have to bear the full shock of the German attack, and the whole crux of the situation was whether she was really able to resist the impact or not. She evidently was not, and had Germany's Ally not, fortunately, been smashed to pieces by Russia, France would be in a most dangerous position. Our troops have clearly done yeoman service, but it would be pure braggadocio to imagine that they could save the situation. Common sense—a quality not too popular just now—shows that a force of 100,000, or even 150,000, is little more than a drop in the bucket compared to the 2,500,000 men said to be facing each other under arms in France to-day. But clearly few as they are, the British have exhibited all that dour valour which made them the backbone of allied armies on countless battlefields of the middle ages, and the Napoleonic era. At Waterloo there were but 24,000 British soldiers amongst Wellington's 67,000, and most of them were raw recruits. Yet it was they who stood their ground, and held the great Emperor at bay until Blücher and his 50,000 Prussians smashed down upon his flank. Marlborough had comparatively few British in the large allied armies he led, but time and again their refusal to admit they were beaten, their stubborn courage wrung victory from seeming defeat. Had our troops at Mons not been in splendid condition, and cleverly lead, we might have had to mourn another Sedan. The Germans almost got us, but we proved too formidable, and too quick marchers, and eluded them. Here was indeed no demoralised, broken-hearted army, such as that under MacMahon, which was swept headlong into Sedan, and, surrounded by a ring of steel, promptly surrendered. Keeping a bold front, the British regulars hurled back every Prussian attack, but evidently the moment the furious onslaughts slackened, they must have hastened across the French border at great speed, in order to avoid being surrounded.

7,000,000 Russian Babies.

It is Russia's hordes which will save the situation, and will give Germany her deathblow as a great Empire, but it is fortunate for the world that nothing can kill a mighty nation. The European powers will remember this crowning proof of Russia's immense strength—and Russia will not forget. We sometimes overlook the fact that Russia has a population equal to that of Germany, France, Great Britain and Italy combined! That every year no fewer than 7,675,000 new subjects of the Tsar see the light. As during that time only 4,887,000 pass away, there are almost 3,000,000 more Russians in the world every year. That is to say, the natural increase in Russia in two years equals the total population of Australia and New Zealand! With these figures before us, it is not difficult to see who is to dominate Europe in the near future. Let Russia once feel her great strength, and no one dare stand up against her. It is because of this that far-sighted folk look on this war as but the first of a series. However, sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof!

Germany's Efficiency.

The war has brought out many things expected and unlooked for. Germany has demonstrated that her army had every right to the proud claim it has always made of being the most efficient and highly-trained in the world. Whether it is the best led is quite another matter. A splendid system produces a marvellous machine, but a leader must be born. The Germans show the same wonderful marching power which largely contributed to their success in 1870-71. Their artillery is again much superior to that of the French, and their rifle fire again inferior. They have shown themselves better than the French in every arm with the possible exception of the cavalry. We all assumed that the French boast that their quick-firing artillery was superior to any owned by other European armies would be substantiated. Instead, we find that it is the Germans' excellence in this particular arm which has chiefly contributed to their success. But if France was any-

where better than Germany everyone thought that it would be in the air. Yet cables tell us that the Germans have been excellently served by their aeroplanes, and that the Allies have been handicapped by lack of accurate information, which it is the business of aerial scouts to supply. The German military aeroplane is evidently a fine machine. On another page I tell how it comes about that Germany has these aircraft. It is distinctly disquieting to find an Ally failing in these two things in which her predominance was supposed to be undoubted. The war of *revanche* has been talked of in France ever since 1871. She has had over 40 years to make ready for what she deemed inevitable, but brilliant achievement rather than painstaking preparation is the forte of the Gaul.

Well Done, Jack Tar!

The British navy has proved itself once more to be a magnificent fighting machine. It has done more, it has demonstrated to the world that Great Britain's command of the sea is absolute. No greater proof of the need for sea command could have been given than has been supplied by this war. Even a couple of German raiders struck fear into the shipping of the whole world. One trembles to think what would have happened had our navy not been strong enough to account for them in double quick time. The fight in the North Sea showed that the old daring animates our sailors still; it also proved that straight shooting is essential, and that our gunners' aim is excellent. The fight itself was, of course, very one-sided in the end, for a battle-cruiser like the "Lion" could easily have knocked out many more protected cruisers of the "Köln" type without receiving the slightest injury to herself. It is like the "Australia" attacking the "Melbourne"; but until she came on the scene, our men were fighting against odds, and more than holding their own.

The Naval Situation.

The German Fleet has followed the policy which was expected. That is to say, it has swept the Russians into the

Gulf of Finland, and then remained quietly in harbour. Great Britain has 24 Dreadnoughts and nine battle-cruisers in or near the North Sea. Germany has 16 Dreadnoughts and four battle-cruisers available to oppose this armada. Her fifth battle-cruiser, the "Goeben," is at Constantinople. It is highly improbable that the German fleet would venture out of the Baltic or leave Wilhelmshaven to risk annihilation in the North Sea. The obvious thing for Germany to do was to try and waste away the preponderant strength of the opposing English fleet by means of mines, torpedoes and submarine attack. Then, if successful, to come forth and give battle. No matter what the fleet did it could not possibly have saved German merchant ships all over the world. On the declaration of war practically the whole of these were accounted for. With comparatively few exceptions, all remained in neutral ports, where they are as safe as if Germany commanded the sea. Germany could not hope to conquer the British Fleet, if her 20 great ships before they themselves sank succeeded in putting out of action all Britain's 33, then Britain's superiority would be simply overwhelming, because the mighty ships of pre-Dreadnought days would then become invincible. It is an extraordinary position, but undoubtedly true, that for every Dreadnought of Germany and England mutually sunk, Britain becomes stronger!

162,000 Square Miles of Sea.

It is always possible that political necessity or national sentiment may compel the German fleet to come forth and offer battle. If this does not force the hand of the Naval Commander-in-Chief, he will remain where he is waiting on events. We here fail to realise how very small the North Sea is. The total area is 162,000 square miles. Just about twice the size of Victoria. Its greatest width is 345 miles. It is highly improbable that the British Dreadnoughts are steaming about in this little sea, where they run danger from mines, torpedoes and submarines. They are in all probability quietly

lying at Rosyth on the Firth of Forth, or even further off, ready at a moment's notice to dash at 20 knots towards the foe, should the report reach them that the German Fleet was at sea. The whole of the North Sea will be patrolled by light cruisers and destroyers, which will be in touch with the German coast, with each other, and with the British Fleet. The German ships could not possibly force the Straits of Dover before the British arrived. So long as the German Fleet is in its own waters, the whole British Fleet is compelled to remain on guard. The destruction of the German Fleet even if it demanded the loss of all our Dreadnoughts, would liberate a still great navy for action whenever it might be required.

Our Losses.

The British casualties are given us with commendable promptitude, but we have absolutely no figures about the French losses. Estimates of the appalling German losses are cabled us, and although these must be terrible, they can hardly equal the seven or eight hundred thousand which a careful addition of the various estimated casualties since the war began, gives us! The smashing attack in mass formation which the Germans have practised must entail ghastly loss of life, but it wins battles, and, after all, to defeat the foe is the main object of armies. Human life is not allowed to count against tactical success. Our own losses, 15,000 up to September 1st, are small, if we have 160,000 men in the field as reported. The fighting has been very severe, so, judging by the casualties, it is improbable that even half that number of our troops were in action. We have now a very real interest in the German Red Cross arrangements, for no fewer than 13,500 of our 15,000 casualties are men "missing." This means that in the swift retirement from Mons, and the hurried march towards Paris, with the enemy ever at their heels, almost all the British wounded had to be left on the field to be cared for by the Germans. Many men will have been captured also, because in so sustained a retreat isolated groups of soldiers would be surrounded,

and be obliged to surrender to overwhelming numbers. On another page will be found particulars of the German arrangements for caring for the wounded. We are glad to learn from the cables that the Germans were seen tending our wounded on the field of battle. It is also pleasing to read the statements of many of our own soldiers, that the extraordinary tales of German cruelty to prisoners were not believed in the fighting line, where they are considerably closer to the grim facts than are those who feed us with these terrible details.

Childish Cables.

The cables throw little light on the methods of the armies in the field. We are told though about finely-managed field kitchens with the Germans, of splendidly appointed hospital trains, of the way in which no troops are in action for more than a day at a time, their places being taken by others who press home the attack. We are also regaled by absurd stories of Germans marching 120 miles in two days! Of horrible whips found in every naval officer's cabin. Of the cruel treatment of Belgian prisoners, who were forced to live on nothing but black bread—the diet of the German soldier. We are allowed to get nothing about the organisation or lack of organisation of the Allies' commissariat department; we hear nothing whatever about their arrangements for the sick and wounded. Whilst we are yearning for news of vital import we are presented with stories of the doings of some modern Belgian du Guesclin, who slays dozens of Germans with his unaided arm; are given full particulars of the reckless doings of disguised soldiers, who run amok in a motor car; and read of generals' daughters, who insist on enlisting in the ranks and fighting the foe. We are, in fact, being treated like children. It would be far better to have the Press Censor at home send out a statement every day—short if necessary, but accurate—rather than allow fantastic lies to pass untouched, whilst real news is held up. It is true that Sir George Reid sends a daily cable, but it is not al-

ways quite accurate. The most informative news we received came from Sir Timothy Coghlan, but the censor must have noticed that also, at anyrate, that source has dried up now!

Advance, But No Victories.

The cable news of the war has been most unreliable. Of course, we have to remember that it has all come from Allied sources. We make light of news which comes in a roundabout way from Germany, where they actually claim victories! Still, when we find their account of the naval engagement off Heligoland—although naturally belittling it—confirming our own reports in almost every particular, we cannot but feel that there may after all be glimmerings of truth in their other statements. It is a remarkable fact that the Germans have battered their way through Belgium against heroic resistance, have forced back the Allied army at the rate of nearly ten miles a day, have reached Paris, occupied Brussels, taken Liége and Namur, without, according to our cables, having won a single victory, save one over the Russians in the Eastern Prussia! We used to rather scoff at the way in which the Russians reported uniform successes in the war against Japan, but are not those who supply us with the news of the war simply fooling with the facts? One gets a little impatient of this childishness. We are not babies! If we suffered a defeat, tell us so; do not report a success, followed by a rapid movement to the rear. When the Germans were advancing on Brussels, we were told, day after day, of German defeats and successful Belgian attack. It was only when we found that the German defeats occurred daily ten miles nearer Brussels that we grasped the fact that the German troops were really sweeping all before them, and each "defeat" was the prelude to a further advance. This, of course, causes us now to receive every report of a German defeat *cum grano salo*, and with some dread that it may be merely the stepping-stone to other "defeats," each nearer the ultimate goal of the foe.

What Will Turkey Do?

The attitude of Turkey is giving considerable uneasiness. The Turk is a shrewd person, and has always an eye on the main chance in international affairs, so it is pretty certain that he will do nothing until he sees what is likely to happen. At the same time we must not lose sight of the fact that he may be embroiled against his will. Germany has been his consistent supporter against Russia ever since the German Empire came into being. In 1878, after the Russo-Turkish war, it was Bismarck, backed, it is true, by Lord Beaconsfield, who wrested Macedonia and much of Thrace from Bulgaria by the Treaty of Berlin, and gave it back to the Sultan. It was German pressure, too, which prevented the Russians taking Constantinople when they had their armies before that city. Britain supported Germany against Russia at that time, "backed the wrong horse," as Lord Salisbury admitted afterwards. Turkey, therefore, gives asylum to the fleeing battleships of her friend. The Allies object, and as one of them at anyrate—Russia, to wit—would have everything to gain, and nothing to lose, if Turkey declared war, the position of the Turk is not one to envy. The stories of large numbers of German sailors arriving in Constantinople are of course pure imagination. They could only get there by passing through neutral territory, belonging to rather hostile neutrals at that. Turkey, we may be sure, will not go to war unless she is forced into it. If the Balkans were ablaze, it would be different, but until they are Turkey will keep quiet if she can. She has no fleet. Britain having compulsorily purchased the two new Dreadnoughts she was on the eve of receiving. Greece has bought two respectable battleships from the United States. The Turks know that Russia is determined somehow to get Constantinople, and her Black Sea fleet is only waiting the declaration of war to go and take it. The Turk will undoubtedly stick to his tried friend, but not to the length of having his throat cut to please him.

An Inevitable Struggle.

Last month, writing before the outbreak of the war, I indicated how the delicate machinery known as the Balance of Power in Europe, required but the slightest jolt to automatically plunge the nations into war. I also put forth the view that Austria was primarily the guilty party, and that Russia shared her crime. I did not throw the whole blame on Germany; in fact, I suggested that she was doing her best to preserve the peace of Europe. This view has been very strongly criticised, and has drawn upon me many crushing paragraphs, penned, no doubt, by men of large European experience. It is gratifying, therefore, to me to find the English papers taking the same view that I did. They show that the Kaiser sent the Grand Duke of Hesse as a special envoy straight to the Tsar—he is the Tsarina's brother, and a most popular man in Russia—to urge him not to mobilise the Russian troops, because if he did war with Germany was inevitable. I am told that ample proof has been given since that Germany sought the war, was prepared for it, and selected the moment. There may be proof, but to me it is not very convincing. What I do admit at once is that ever since the Morocco affair, when Britain, France and Russia slammed the door on German colonial expansion, Germany realised that if she persisted in her dream of a Colonial Empire a struggle was some day inevitable, and prepared for its coming. But because the German war machine was perfectly ready to strike when war was declared does not prove to me that Germany deliberately brought the war about this year, any more than the splendid readiness of our fleet convinces me that England wanted war. Now we are at grips it matters little who is responsible. Our duty is to strain every nerve to smash the foe. The struggle had to come sometime, let us hope that after it is over there will be a radical reduction in armaments. After the first Balkan war there was another over the spoil. Heaven grant that there may not be another after this!



THE KAISER AND THE EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.

A snapshot at the Ischl railway station.

The Method of the Duel.

To settle any dispute by an appeal to arms is as utterly stupid as for two men to arrange their differences by shooting at each other on the fall of a handkerchief. Nations still resort to this barbarous method, but in carrying it out they all observe certain rules. If there were no non-combatants at all, the horrors of war would be greatly reduced; it is ever the innocent who suffer. The temptation to defend one's house and home, one's wife or daughter, is well nigh irresistible, yet if only one civilian takes up a weapon to do so, he may be condemning numbers of his fellow townsmen to instant death. I

do not for a moment condone what the Germans are said to have done in Belgium, but I never like to condemn absolutely on the evidence of one side only. Terrible charges were made by the French against the Prussians in the war of 1870-71, but whilst there was undoubtedly cruelty, it was almost always proved to have been caused by the doings of non-combatants. Harsh treatment of prisoners brings its own reward, and quick retribution follows. Although the Germans at present must have taken far more British and French prisoners, the Allies, too, have captured Germans who are hostages for the good treatment of our own nationals in German hands. We forget—perhaps it is just as well we do forget—that the Germans are highly civilised, and our equals, if not our superiors, in many things—one of them being their method of caring for the wounded on the field of battle. War lets loose the grosser passions, not merely in the combatants themselves, but in the watching millions of the nations who are at war, we are thus blinded to a recognition of any good qualities in our opponents—war would probably cease altogether if we remained too sane and sensible once we had begun fighting.

The Dislocation of Trade.

The smaller Latin Republics are said to be in great trouble owing to the fact that they cannot now borrow money in England, and because their usual markets are closed to them. This gives some idea of the devastating consequences of this struggle. Germany and Austria are blockaded; nothing can be sold to them, nothing can be bought from them. France has necessarily ceased manufacturing, and her mining industry must be at a standstill. British exports dropped no less than £13,000,000 in August. Where is the shortage to be made up from, for made up it must be from somewhere? Naturally the United States must get a great deal of the trade of Germany, France and Great Britain. That is inevitable and necessary, too, if the trade of the world is to go on. The greatest handicap to world industry is the lack of

ships to carry goods in. We experience that here, although only some dozen steamers have been withdrawn from the Australian trade in order to carry our troops to Europe. What must it be like in the Atlantic, where almost one-eighth of the cargo-carrying vessels have disappeared into neutral ports? Not only have all the German ships been driven off the seas, but large numbers of the British have been withdrawn for military purposes. With goods ready to send to nations not embroiled in the titanic struggle, to States who are clamouring for them, the United States is naturally anxious to find means of delivering them. She has no merchant marine of her own, she therefore proposes to purchase some of the German ships which have sought asylum in her ports. It is a natural desire, and whatever the legal aspect of such action by a neutral may be, the common-sense view would be that if it would be justifiable to buy the ships if they were to be used to convey grain to starving people, it would be equally justifiable if they are to be used to convey supplies to starving States and factories. The only possible objection is that it gives money to our foes, but, as gold is contraband of war, the Germans cannot get it till the war is over, and, when it is over, it will not be the German Government that gets it, but the shareholders of the Nord Deutscher Lloyd and the Hamburg-Amerika line, many of whom are, of course, British. America's neutrality has been strictly preserved, but it is very questionable whether the purchase of merchant ships sheltering in her own ports could be regarded as a violation of such neutrality.

What Will Happen.

The role of the prophet is a thankless one, yet everyone is speculating as to what will happen when the war is over. That, of course, depends upon the extent of the defeat Germany suffers. In any case, we may assume the break-up of Austria. With her army smashed to pulp by the Russian cohorts, with her Emperor tottering on the brink of the grave, Austria has no hope of holding the restive component parts of her



HIS HOLINESS POPE PIUS X.

Died August 20th, 1914.

Empire together. This mediaeval survival will be swept off the map. A triumphant Russia will certainly take Galicia. Bohemians already look to their fellow Slavs—the Russians—to deliver them from the Austrian yoke. They will joyfully put themselves beneath that of the Tsar, remembering not the saying of Rehoboam to the son of Nebat about thighs and little fingers! The Servians are certain to get Bosnia, they already occupy it. Bulgaria will want her lost provinces, Servia and Greece would no doubt be inclined to restore them in exchange for territorial aggrandisement at the expense of Al-

bania. The 3,000,000 Roumanians in Hungary are not likely to let slip a chance like this. The re-arrangement of the boundaries in the Balkans, that Pandora-box of Europe, is certain to be a very delicate matter, one fraught with great danger. It is quite conceivable that the German nation may be strengthened by disastrous defeat. The Austrian-German Provinces might join with them to create a Germany ruled by her own people, not by a military caste. As a great military Power she will fortunately cease to exist, but as a mighty manufacturing and trading nation her future may be all the brighter.

Pope Benedict XV.

Pope Pius X. died on August 20th after a short illness. He became Pontiff owing to the objection of Austria to Cardinal Rampolla, whose election would otherwise have been certain. Lacking the clever diplomacy of his great predecessor, Leo. XIII., he yet proved a most capable director of the mighty church he was called from seclusion to rule over. The Conclave of Cardinals, after three days balloting, elected Cardinal Della Chiosa of Bologna as his successor. The new Pontiff has assumed the name of Benedict XV. He will undoubtedly take a far more active part in European affairs than did the deceased Pope. His policy will more nearly resemble that of Cardinal Rampolla than that of Pius X. He has appointed Cardinal Ferrari, of Milan, his Secretary of State.

The Federal Elections.

The result of the Federal elections must be a grievous blow to the Liberals, who were very confident that they would win the Lower House, and add considerably to their strength in the Senate. The war undoubtedly gave them many votes. Had the political fight not been complicated by the tremendous struggle the Empire is engaged on, the Liberal defeat would have been even more thorough. The returns

are not all in yet, but Labour will have a majority of five at the very least in the House of Representatives—and probably nine. In the Senate five or six Liberals will confront 31 or 30 Labour men. The allotment of portfolios depends upon the party ballot, but we know that it matters not what individuals are at the head of the Commonwealth, they will support the Homeland with the same loyalty and enthusiasm as their predecessors. There will be no slackening off in that splendid spirit which caused the whole nation to rally to the aid of Great Britain in her dire need. The greatest difference between the Liberal and the Labour administration is sure to be the method employed in raising the necessary money to carry on the finances of the country. I have indicated elsewhere that no less a sum than £11,000,000 will be required. Where is it coming from? Labour is certain to go in for bold measures, and the laudable objection it has always shown to borrowing money for Commonwealth needs will probably compel very heavy taxation of some sort. The threatened drought may be more serious for Australia than even the heavy drain the war will make on her resources. Fortunately there seems good prospect of rain, although this will come rather too late in some cases.

Henry Stead, Manning-road, East Malvern.



ANTI-AIRSHIP ARTILLERY.

Not only has the army made special provision for coping with the airship peril, but warships are now all armed with ordnance to destroy aircraft.

GERMANY'S NEXT MOVE.

THE MENACE OF THE ZEPPELIN.

It is generally assumed that the much-vaunted German rigid dirigible airships, the creation of Count Zeppelin, are not going to play so great a part as was anticipated in this war. We learn that six at least of these monsters have been brought down and destroyed, and that the Germans can only have seven or eight of them left. Would that we could believe it! Dare we, though, shut our eyes to the possibilities?

First of all, are these airships which have been destroyed really Zeppelins? It is, we fear, highly improbable. The great rigid airship is not a scout, but the battleship of the sky. She would not be risked merely to spy out the land. That is the duty of aeroplanes and of the serviceable airships of the Parseval type. All German airships are classed as Zeppelins by the non-expert, whether they be of the rigid or non-rigid type and it is not only possible, but indeed probable, that the aircraft reported as destroyed are Parsevals or other non-rigid ships who were about the business for which they were designed, namely, scouting and dropping small bombs. Then, again, are we justified in assuming that Germany has only the thirteen first-class airships mentioned in the reference books?

HAS GERMANY FIFTY ZEPPELINS?

If Germany has really been preparing for war and intended to provoke it, as is generally assumed, then we may be absolutely certain that she has far more airships than this. In any case private information proves thirteen to be considerably below the mark. In April, 1913, there were seventeen military dirigibles of various sorts, and five on order, in addition there were ten privately-owned airships in Germany. The Germans have equipment for turning out ten first-class airships and ten second-class. It does not take very long to build such ships. We have no

definite data, but believe that a Zeppelin can be turned out in less than six months. If this be so, some thirty of these ships could have been built since the beginning of 1913. That is to say, Germany may conceivably have a battle fleet of aircraft nearly fifty strong!

IS THE COST PROHIBITIVE?

The objection is naturally taken that the immense cost of turning out so many ships could not be hidden in the estimates, and that therefore she has not got them. Further, that Germans must think very highly of this third arm if they would strive so greatly to turn out such a large quantity of ships, which we know have again and again suffered disaster. To the first objection the reply is (1) that the cost of a Zeppelin is nothing like as great as is supposed; and (2) that even if they cost three times what they actually do, provision was made in last year's estimates which would have permitted them to be built.

DISASTERS AND ACHIEVEMENT.

To the second objection we need only point to the way in which the Kaiser has thrown himself into the development of aircraft, to the large national funds which Germans have raised themselves to build airships and aeroplanes, and to the actual achievements of the rigid ships. To take the last first: 1913 saw two terrible disasters when the "L₁" and "L₂," the two latest Zeppelins, were utterly destroyed, one in the North Sea and the other near Berlin. Prior to that other disasters had befallen earlier types, which had been destroyed by fire and wind. That is the side of the picture most people have seen. On the other is a long record of constantly increasing efficiency. Speed has mounted from thirty to fifty, and even sixty miles an hour. In fact, no airship is now classed as first-class

that has not a greater speed than forty miles per hour. Regular passenger trips have been taken through the summer, from Dusseldorf to Cologne, and down the Rhine. Official visits have been paid in Zeppelins by ruling princes to one another. The range of the airship has been steadily increased until we hear of one, the "Saschen," flying from Baden-Baden to Vienna, a distance of 435 miles, in eight hours, and returning with equal speed. Another, the "L1," in fact, made a voyage lasting $31\frac{1}{2}$ hours. This increasing reliability has been accompanied by a great advance in the arming and offensive power of the airship. Undoubtedly the Germans do consider that the Zeppelin is destined to play a great part in war. Thus far it has done nothing. Let us hope that it is not merely biding its time!

COST £50,000, NOT £500,000 EACH.

With regard to the objection that the cost is prohibitive, that is an entire illusion. These things do not cost anything like as much as torpedo craft or submarines. The British Government purchased a Clement-Bayard from France for £18,000 last year, and the year before Count Zeppelin sold one of his latest ships to the German Government for £25,000. If we assume that the most recent type cost twice that amount to build, it is a mere nothing if what is produced is really efficient. At that rate fifty Zeppelins would only cost £2,500,000. Even assuming these vessels cost as much as £100,000 each, the Reichstag voted quite enough last year to pay for them. It is not a question of cost at all, but one of the capacity of the airship factories in Germany.

GERMANY VOTES £8,000,000.

The importance Germany puts upon the creation of a third arm is shown by the amounts devoted to aerial defence by her last year. Great Britain allotted £822,000 for the purpose; France voted £1,500,000, and the French also raised a national fund. Germany, however, voted no less than £7,783,000 to be spent on an ambitious programme extending over four years. That is to say, about £2,000,000 a year if spent

equally every twelve months, but allowing her to spend almost £8,000,000 as she chooses before 1918. If she were expecting war this year she may have used most of it already! In addition to this the Germans raised £200,000 privately in 1912, which was all spent in the construction of aeroplanes. As the finest military ones cost only £2000, that means one hundred machines all built to one type, and to judge by results in the war a very good type indeed. During 1913 an equally large sum was subscribed for the same purpose.

SIZE AND ARMAMENT.

Naturally there are no definite particulars as to the size and armament of the Zeppelins. It is known, however, that the ill-fated "L2" was 487 feet long, 50 feet in diameter, and had a displacement of 27 tons. That is to say, she was almost as long as the Dreadnought and as wide as H.M.A.S. "Sydney." The armament they carry is largely a matter of speculation. It is understood that they mount guns of great power for their size. They are solidly mounted on platforms below her rigid frame. Two on the forward deck, one on the after, and one also amidships. These guns are supposed to fire a shell which goes through inch steel at a great distance. In addition to their main armament they carry light quick-firing guns on a platform above the frame, to repel aeroplane attack.

CREDITED WITH MARVELLOUS SHOOTING.

Rumour credits the airship with carrying light armour, the composition of which has been kept a secret, but which, although less than an eighth of an inch thick, yet spreads ordinary bullets like sealing-wax! Wonderful stories have leaked out every now and again about the marvellous shooting the Zeppelin gunners have achieved. It is said that whilst sailing at fifty miles an hour in wide circles, 6000 feet in the air, a Zeppelin shot to pieces, in seventeen minutes, a target, a silhouette of a whole village, set out on the plain near Metz. Special armour-piercing tests were carried out, and the tremendous

force of the Macarite shells used was demonstrated. The deck armour of protected cruisers was easily perforated, and dummy magazines were exploded. This may not be true—we trust it is merely rumour—but the German field guns have been a revelation to everyone. Six thousand feet is over a mile, and riding at that height a Zeppelin would appear little larger than a lead pencil to the searching artillermen below.

A DROPPER OF BOMBS.

It is as a bomb-dropper, however, that the Zeppelin is most to be dreaded; but here again rumour only tells about its armament. It is certain, though, that a ship of this type could take up with her bombs weighing nearly two tons. The usual complement of such ships is 28 men, and the passenger variety have taken many more. It is popularly said that bombs of immense power will be used, and that the Ceiss sighting instrument enables them to be dropped with almost mathematical precision. It is known that these airships carry powerful wireless equipment, capable of sending messages for several hundred miles.

AIRSHIP V. AEROPLANE.

The great advantage an airship has over an aeroplane for offensive military purposes is that she need not always be on the move. Her platforms are perfectly steady both for gun fire and observation, and she is able to outride the fiercest storm without danger. She can stay in the air all day; can, indeed, remain afloat for days together if she wishes. On the other hand she is nothing like as mobile as the aeroplane, cannot hope to equal it in speed. She cannot ascend with anything like the same quickness, nor can she attain the heights to which the aeroplane can mount. When in the air she is safe from wind and storm, but on the land she is at the mercy of the weather, consequently must have a house into which she can retire. This means the building of sheds in different centres, a provision already made by the Germans in Kiel, Cuxhaven, Hamburg, Wilhelmshafen, Heligoland, Dusseldorf, Cologne,

Frankfort, Baden, Metz and Friederichshafen. Another great disadvantage the Zeppelin labours under is that she must rely upon an explosive gas to lift her into the air. She might be riddled with bullets without seriously affecting her buoyancy, but if one of her gas bags explodes her fate is sealed.

ZEPPELIN AND PARSEVAL.

Many people do not understand the difference between a Zeppelin and an ordinary dirigible of the Parseval type. To put this simply: the first is a rigid framework of aluminium and light steel into which a large number of separate gas bags are put, the second is a large gas bag to which a car is suspended. In the rigid type cabins and platforms are firmly attached to the framework within which the gas bags are stowed, several of the latter might be punctured and lose their gas without the airship falling. In the non-rigid type the car is suspended by wire ropes and hangs beneath the gas envelope. If this is punctured seriously the whole affair collapses at once. The non-rigids are smaller and more suitable for scouting work; the Zeppelin, the Schuette-Lanz and other rigid airships are for much more serious work, and thus far they do not seem to have been used in the war. It is a terrible thought to imagine fifty or more of these monsters of the air waiting the psychological moment to issue forth on a shocked world!

SEAPLANES OUR DEFENCE.

It has always been assumed by navy men at home that in the event of war with Germany the Kaiser would strike hard with his fleet at once, or, if circumstances did not allow that, would try and wear down the watching British by mines, torpedo attacks and submarines, and then hurl forth his fleet, accompanied by submarines escorted by airships, to victory or defeat. We have always felt perfectly secure in our superiority in ships, men and guns, but the Zeppelins may make a vast difference. Fortunately we are well supplied with seaplanes manned by aviators who will not hesitate to hurl their machines headlong into a German Zeppelin, caring not that death is inevitable, so that they destroy this terrible engine of war!

FEDERAL FINANCE.

PAPER MONEY AND THE CRISIS.

By HERBERT BROOKES,

Chairman of the Melbourne Chamber of Manufactures.

What does the note issue amount to?

It is the issue of paper money against a gold reserve of certain fixed proportion determined by Parliament.

Is there any danger with such a practice?

Not when the margin of safety is high enough. In other words, it is safe so long as a certain number of golden sovereigns is lodged in the Treasury for every note issued. In general practice and under normal conditions, it is recommended by experience and by experts that 40 sovereigns should be lodged for every 100 pound notes issued.

Is it ever wise or necessary to depart from such a relative arrangement?

It may be both wise and necessary under the stress of exceptional crises to issue paper money provided the credit of the country is good. But it must always be realised that such a provision must only be temporarily adopted, and under circumstances that do not tend to encourage too easy an access to such a source, or any easy or reckless handling of the issue. It is at all times delicate and dangerous, and amounts to raising money by a loan or borrowing from the people in an indirect way, and from a source that is unlimited whilst national credit exists, in any degree whatsoever. It is not a straight-out loan, and herein lies its speciousness and its riskiness. Hence the necessity for special safeguards and conditions which, while easing a national crisis temporarily, shall not make too easy the access to these funds. With this preliminary explanation let us now examine recent happenings.

The Federal Government very wisely called a conference to which they admitted the leaders of the Federal Opposition and the representatives of big financial Commonwealth interests to consider ways and means of maintain-

ing confidence and preventing panic and assisting the people of the Commonwealth in these days of grave national crisis. The concentrated wisdom of this body, after discussion, decided upon a course which the Government adopted, and made public. Summed up the proposal amounts to making use of the Commonwealth Note Issue to see the country through its present difficulties. In the following manner:—Each of the six States shall have the opportunity of lifting Commonwealth notes, provided they lodge gold to the extent of 25 per cent. of that amount, and pay interest at the rate of 3 per cent. for the accommodation. All the banks of the Commonwealth to have the same opportunity of getting Commonwealth notes, provided they lodge gold to the extent of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. of the amount advanced, and interest to be paid at the current rate for the time being. Now this looks a simple and easy proposition, and might be all right if not availed of to too great an extent, unless the Commonwealth has a Fortunatus purse, without bottom.

How stands the note issue to-day? During the last two weeks the various banks have deposited an additional two millions in gold, and lifted two million in notes. This has had a good effect in strengthening the gold reserve in the Commonwealth Treasury, and makes the position as follows:—

Four millions of notes taken by the banks to meet the normal requirements of the community.

Five millions of notes taken by the banks, and held by them under ordinary conditions, to meet the exceptional requirements of the community.

Two millions of notes, as above indicated, to meet abnormal re-

quirements and strengthen gold reserve in Commonwealth Treasury.

Eleven million of notes being total issued by the Commonwealth Treasury.

The reserve in gold held for the first nine millions mentioned amounts to $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and for the additional two millions, pound for pound has been lodged, so that the total gold held at Treasury against these notes amounts to $6\frac{1}{2}$ millions. This is a safe margin, and could be looked upon as equal to tiding the community over a stress.

Let us now see what the condition will be if the facilities afforded by the Government's proposition are taken advantage of even to a very limited extent. And let us assume that the six several State Governments alone make application for notes to finance their ordinary undertakings as well as certain relief works which are in all probability likely to be initiated. A minimum amount for such purposes could be fixed at £15,000,000, which, after all, would not amount to anything excessive when distributed over the six States of the Commonwealth. To lift this amount of notes, it will be necessary to deposit $3\frac{3}{4}$ millions in gold. The position will then be as follows:—

26 millions of Commonwealth notes issued.

$10\frac{1}{4}$ millions held as gold reserve in Treasury.

Here it will be seen that the margin of safety has been reduced considerably more, especially during an abnormal period when, owing to the shrinkage of employment, possible reduction in Customs revenue owing to diminution of importations, and the holding up of large exportations of our primary products, such as our wool clip. All these factors will probably lead to a decline in trade and traffic, and probably in the amount of paper money which the community can absorb. Under ordinary conditions, it is found that an issue of 4,000,000 notes is sufficient for Commonwealth requirements. What will the result be when the additional 15,000,000 notes referred to above are added to the circulation by the seven

States paying them out to meet their obligations, their salaries, their wages, and other expenditures? Furthermore, can it be expected that the banks, under these abnormal conditions, will continue to hold the extra 5,000,000 notes they retain during normal periods in order to meet constantly recurring expansions of trade each year. Possibly they, too, will be put into circulation, in which case Australia will be loaded with a paper currency of 26,000,000. Under these circumstances, is it not natural to ask ourselves the question—Can Australia digest such a surfeit of paper money without depreciation in its currency, or, what is the same thing, appreciation in the prices of commodities? The answer must be—Certainly not! More especially when it is recollected that so far we have only assumed that the six several States have taken advantage of the offer, and then only to a limited extent. If, in addition, all the banks throughout the Commonwealth, together with the Commonwealth Bank itself, draws freely upon this same source, which, under the circumstances, with such a low rate of interest, they will be tempted to do, the pockets of the Australian citizen will be bulging with paper money until such time as he takes it to the banks or the Commonwealth Treasury to exchange for gold. What will the position then be? A tremendous strain will be imposed upon the Commonwealth Treasury, since it is scarcely to be expected that the banks can carry all this paper without shipping away their gold reserves to the same extent. Then the Government may be compelled to make paper money convertible. This is a consummation devoutly to be avoided, except for very short periods, and, of course, where the issue of paper money has been not in any way reckless.

The present arrangement would not have been open to such criticism if the rate of interest to be charged had been made 5 per cent. instead of 3 per cent., since in this way the temptation to apply for an excess of Commonwealth notes would not have been nearly so great. As it is there is no restraint ex-

cept the self-restraint of the States and the institutions. To assist this there should have been the bar of a heavier interest charge. This is the way the Bank of England adopts to prevent such a drain.

Was there any alternative? Something had to be done. Something ought to have been done. Admitted.

The arrangement made by the Federal Government is an easy but dangerous way of tiding us over our difficulties. It is not a real remedy. At best it is a justifiable but temporary expedient. And the danger lies in the possibility of that expedient being persisted in longer than is absolutely essential. After all, as has been indicated at the outset, it is simply an ingenious scheme for borrowing money from the community to an unlimited extent, and without their realising the fact in the same way they would were a direct loan raised in the money market. For this reason great care and great discrimination is required, and a fixed resolve that the method shall be used sparingly and abandoned at the earliest opportunity. As already indicated, it would have been an added safeguard if the Federal Government had decided to charge 5 per cent. interest at least in order to discourage as far as possible the possibility of too great a recourse being had to this particular provision adopted in time of stress to maintain credit and confidence.

Other arrangements were possible, which would have eased the financial situation, and given that confidence which was essential at that stage. For instance, another plan would have been to have issued Treasury bonds to the extent of one or two millions at 4 per cent., payable in two years, and placed them at a minimum of £97. The banks of Australasia, with their forty-five millions gold and coin reserves, which represent 20 per cent. of their deposits, could very easily have invested at least five millions in these Treasury bonds for two years, which would have yielded them $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest. Since deposits are accumulating with them, this five millions would soon have been replaced. This money could have been loaned to the

States. Some such scheme as this could very well have been initiated, and, if necessary, extended, even going so far as to call upon the Bank of England for assistance in this same direction. Furthermore, a little assistance might at the present time quite easily have been obtained by taking one million out of the gold reserve at the Treasury, since there is ample cover at present with $6\frac{1}{2}$ millions gold against 11 millions in notes issued.

There is a section of the community disposed to look upon the Commonwealth note issue as the sheet anchor of finance. Properly guarded in times of great financial stress, when the credit of the country is good, it may be used temporarily to great advantage. But the action of the Federal Government at the recent conference in throwing its whole weight behind the note issue, and making arrangements to use it to assist both State and financial institutions through the present crisis upon such easy conditions has given further colour to this erroneous supposition. It reminds one of the incident in Jersey island, when the citizens built the markets, and the mayor announced the fact that it wasn't going to cost anything, since they had raised paper money.

What would the position have been had no Commonwealth note issue been established?

The banks would have had their own note issue under Government supervision, and subject to the tax as hitherto. Given this crisis, the banks could have been permitted to increase their own note issue by a few millions to ease the situation, and against this their assets and capital could have been pledged. Here would have been a proposition far more secure than the present arrangement, when temptation has been placed in the way of careless financiers in times of financial stress and panic. A nation must guard itself against the worship of a fetish in financial matters, more particularly when that idol is made of paper and can be made and issued so easily.

Herbert Brookes, 206 Walsh-street, South Yarra.

LOYAL AUSTRALIA.

COUNTING NOT THE COST.

Australia has risen magnificently to the occasion. She alone of all the Dominions was able to offer Great Britain ships as well as men. The value of the *Australia* has been amply demonstrated, for she alone of the Allies' ships in the Pacific could cope with the two strong and swift German cruisers, *Gneisenau* and *Scharnhorst*. Already the Commonwealth has reason to be glad that she so boldly embarked on the creation of a fleet of her own. Not alone do we lend the fleet, worth many millions, we also give an expeditionary force of 20,000 men which will cost us more than £5,000,000. In a time like this we must not count the cost, and were it thrice as much we would not shirk the load. At the same time we are men, not children, and it behoves us to put our house in order so that we may be able to meet the financial situation without flinching. If we have to pay, then we will do it gladly, but we would like to have some idea of how the money is going to be raised, and what the extra taxation will amount to.

Apart altogether from the extraordinary war expenditure, as I have consistently pointed out for many months, the Federal Government will have to face a deficit of from £2,000,000 to £5,000,000 in the financial year 1914-15. At the close of the year 1913-14, owing to unexpected increase in revenue, and rigid economies, especially in the Defence Department, expenditure only exceeded revenue by about £1,500,000, instead of the anticipated £2,650,000. Even supposing the Customs revenue did not decline—it was £572,000 less in 1913-14 than in 1912-13—we knew that the deficit must be greater this year, as expenditure is increasing automatically by £1,100,000. We may therefore anticipate a total deficit of £2,600,000, towards which there is only about £1,150,000 still left from Mr. Fisher's time.

It was a very serious problem how to meet this huge deficit, nor would bor-

rowing help us much, as we have already borrowed wherever possible for reproductive works and for land, buildings, etc., in connection with Defence. No large amount can be saved in any department, and the jettisoning of the baby bonus saves only £600,000. Obviously the Federal Treasurer would have had to resort to extra taxation in any case, whether the war had broken out or not, but matters financial are naturally much more serious now than they were six weeks ago. It is difficult to reduce any of our present expenditure—we will assuredly not try to do so on Defence, although I, for one, still hold that it is far more imperative for Australia to spend her money on the fleet than in an attempt to slightly train all the manhood of the Commonwealth in arms.

Our Customs' revenue is bound to decrease. We cannot expect to get the produces of Germany, France, Belgium, or other European countries, of which we have received annually some £12,000,000 worth, nor can we hope to greatly increase our imports from Great Britain; in fact, if they keep up to the present level, £40,000,000, it will be surprising! The sudden disappearance of one-eighth of the carrying ships of the world is bound to hit us badly. The number is really greater, as a large number of British merchant ships will be withdrawn for war purposes, as well as all the German and Austrian cargo boats. It would be fairly safe to assume that our imports dropped something like one-sixth, which would mean a Customs revenue £2,500,000 less than last year. We have therefore to look forward to a deficit nearer £5,000,000 than £2,000,000.

In addition to this we have the Expeditionary Force to pay for, and we must be spending a good deal on our Navy just now also. It will be surprising if the Expeditionary Force does not greatly exceed the sum of £5,000,000, which I am taking for the moment as its cost. We are paying the men a mini-

mum of 6s. a day. The higher ranks get more, and the commissioned officers more again. It would not be over-estimating the wages to assume an average of 7s. per man per day right through. Twenty thousand men at 7s. a day comes to £7000 per day altogether. It would not be out of the way to assume that it will be three months after they enlisted before the men are in action. Supposing, what we all devoutly hope, that the troops will never be required because of the termination of the war, it is safe to assume that it will be six months in any case before they get back. For that period it will cost us £1,275,000 in wages alone. If it is a year ere they return it will cost us at least £2,500,000 in wages.

Another cost that we can guess at roughly is that of transport. It will presumably take at least 15 steamers to convey the 20,000 troops, horses, etc. The usual sum paid for such service is 10s. per ton per month. The steamers already engaged are almost all about 6000 tons burden, so we get £300 per month per steamer, or £18,000 for six months, close on £300,000 for transport alone! To feed the men must cost considerably more than 1s. per day, take it at 1s. 6d., that means £1500 per day for 20,000, or almost £300,000 for six months. We see, therefore, that for wages, conveyance and food the cost cannot be less than £2,000,000 for six months, and almost twice that for twelve. In addition there are, of course, uniforms to be purchased, rifles and ammunition for all the men, and guns, etc., for the artillery. If further contingents are sent we may roughly reckon that it will cost us at the rate of £250 per man.

If we add to the deficit (£2,600,000) the Treasurer would have to face in any case, the estimated drop in revenue (£2,600,000), £5,000,000 for the Expeditionary Force—for six months only—and, say, £1,000,000 extra for the navy, the new Government will be met with the need of raising no less a sum than £11,000,000 extra during the next twelve months!

How this deficit is to be met is a vital and imperative question. Obviously no half-measures can be resorted to. The

money can only be found either by suspending the *per capita* payments to the States—which would dislocate their finances entirely and make still graver the terrible position some of them will be in anyhow owing to the impossibility of raising loans—or by levying additional taxation. The former course is clearly impossible. In the April, 1914, Review I indicated that a 15 per cent. export duty on Australia's principal products would bring in about £6,000,000. I also pointed out that an income tax of 6d. in the £, with an exemption of only £100, would bring in about the same amount.

The situation is one which requires most statesman-like handling. Whilst external borrowing may be exceedingly difficult, it ought to be possible to raise loans in Australia itself. England, of course, did this during the Boer War. That is, she borrowed money from her citizens, paid them for goods she bought from them with this borrowed money, and again borrowed it from them. The money was in constant circulation. The only thing was that the nation steadily added to the national debt, and was permanently saddled with the payment of the interest. If it is decided to meet the extraordinary expenditure this year by borrowing money, it should not be difficult to obtain what is required at, say, 4 per cent. The interest could be provided for by making a war levy of, say, 1 per cent. on all imported goods, whether dutiable or not. This form of levy was made some 30 years ago in New Zealand, when times were bad, and was kept for several years. It is horrible to think of Australia having to create a national debt for war purposes, and thus follow the example of European nations, but with, at any rate, £6,000,000 of expenditure, due solely to the war, we have little choice. There must be additional taxation to meet the normal deficit. The country could hardly produce enough by direct taxation to pay for the war contribution from current revenue. A 1 per cent. war levy on our total imports would bring in £800,000, which would pay interest at 4 per cent., and 1 per cent. sinking fund on a loan of £16,000,000.

Henry Stead, Manning-road, East Malvern.

HISTORY OF THE MONTH IN CARICATURE.

Oh, wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see ousrels as ither see us.—*Burns.*



Ulk.]

DEEP FRIENDSHIP.

[Berlin.]

RUSSIA: "Since you have been so kind as to put on one handcuff (Fleet Convention) I will soon send you the other (Alliance).



Kladderadatsch.]

[Berlin.]

INFELIX AUSTRIA!
What Next?



Kladderadatsch.]

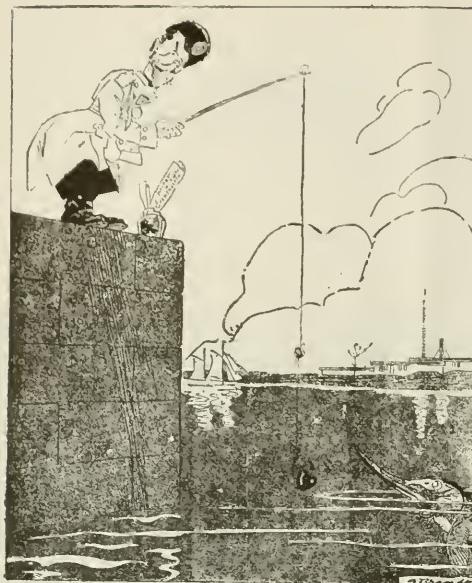
[Berlin.]

INTEGER VITÆ.

"Begun in blood, ended in blood. I shall go:
it is too much for me."

None of the caricatures to hand from Europe can, of course, yet deal with the terrible war, but the action of Austria in demanding satisfaction from Servia has caused some of them to treat very seriously with the situation. We will not be able next month to give anything like so large a selection of cartoons as is usual, because the European papers will cease to reach us.

Kladderadatsch, the best German paper of this type, which is looked on in Berlin much as *Punch* is regarded in London, has two cartoons, one showing Austria blundering forward in the garb of death, the other King Peter of Servia contemplating retirement as a result of the murdering work of his subjects. The "beginn in blood" refers, of course, to the ghastly regicidal deeds of the



Kladderadatsch.]

[Berlin.

THE TRIPLE ENTENTE FISHER ON THE DANUBE.

Will the Roumanian sterlet take the bait?

Servian officers which gave Peter the throne. It was a long time, by the way, after that grim and sordid tragedy before the Great Powers would allow any of their diplomatic representatives to go to Belgrade.



Mucha.

[Warsaw.

THE RUSSIAN ROUMANIAN MEETING.
Austria is anxious to know what is happening.

Die Muskete, a Viennese journal, shows Austria and Italy blowing up the Albanian bubble. Albania is bound to loom largely later on whenever peace is being made.



Kakas-Marton.]

[Budapest.

THE CONSTANZA INTERVIEW.

GERMANY TO AUSTRIA: "Comrade, your wife is deceiving you!"



Die Muskete.]

[Vienna.

EUROPE'S CHRONIC TROUBLE.

The two friends (Austria and Italy) blowing the Albanian bubble.



Kladderadatsch.]

[Berlin.

RUSSIA AND THE THREE YEARS' SERVICE.

MARIANNE: "My noble sir, whatever it may cost, your will is my law."



Simplicissimus.]

[Munich.

THE TWO CZARS.

"Our alliance is now properly cemented, since I am convinced that also in France you take no notice of the will of the people."

The meeting of the Tsar and the King of Roumania at Constanza naturally caused much comment in Europe. What actually took place was not made public.

The belief in a fleet convention between England and Russia was generally held on the Continent, and it was regarded as a long step towards a definite alliance which would bind Britain securely, for defence and offence, to Russia and France.

The revival of the three years' service in France is attributed directly to the influence of Russia, although, as always, Russia is shown loving France chiefly for her money-bags!

In the "Slav danger," *Simplicissimus* shows the Dual Empire asleep in a chair tottering on the brink of an abyss, whilst the steady invasion of rats from across the border makes the position daily less secure.

The cartoons dealing with the precarious position of the new ruler of Albania are of little interest now, although a month ago events in that experiment of the Great Powers would have had much attention given them. Now we only wonder what has happened to the unfor-



Wahre Jacob.]

[Stuttgart.

THE SECRET OF THE DUAL ALLIANCE.

FRANCE: "It will not end our friendship if I do not institute the three years' service?"

RUSSIA: "Certainly not, my angel, as I still wish to borrow further millions."



Pasquino. [Turin.]
THE NEW KING OF ALBANIA.
The Throne of Essad Pasha.



Gluhlichter. [Vienna.]

THE PRINCE OF WIED IN DANGER.

"First my subjects would not fire on the Epirotes; then the Malissores would not fire on the Peasants; now Prenk Bib Doda won't fire on the Rebels; but they all fire at me."

tunate Prince Wied, who must altogether lack that international support on which he counted. Servia will probably try and get her own back there



Lustige Blätter. [Berlin.]
IN ALBANIA.

When the turn below is finished, then the star number, Italian-Austrian Wrestling Match, will begin.



Simplicissimus. [Munich.]
THE SLAV DANGER.



Lustige Blätter.] [Berlin.
THE CONFERENCE AT NIAGARA FALLS.
The boat of Peace is reaching its destination
with alarming rapidity.

again, a proceeding which Italy will greatly resent.

There is a quaint picture in *Lustige Blätter*, showing Peace with a palm



Hindi Punch.] THE SOUTH AFRICAN OSTRICH.

MR. HINDI PUNCH: "What do you think of it, friend Ghandhi?"

MR. GHANDHI: "Its beautiful white feathers are very charming. I only hope it doesn't pick them out."



Hindi Punch.] YANKEE BILLING.

MR. HINDI PUNCH: "What's that, Jonathan?"
JONATHAN: "Billing something to boycott your Indian nigger from my hearth and home!"

MR. PUNCH: "Ah! And you pride yourself on being the lord of the Land of Liberty, and the great lover of Freedom, Equality, and Fraternity!"

[The Indian Exclusion Bill, now before the United States House of Representatives, aims at boycotting Indian artisans and labourers from America, and places numerous humiliating restrictions on the most respectable Indian visitors.]

branch and umbrella going over Niagara Falls in a boat with President Wilson and a Mexican delegate; but that is the only cartoon comment on the Mexican crisis which has come to hand.

Hindi Punch is naturally much exercised at the Exclusion Bills which are



Lustige Blätter.] [Berlin.
THE SUFFRAGETTE AND THE OTHER.

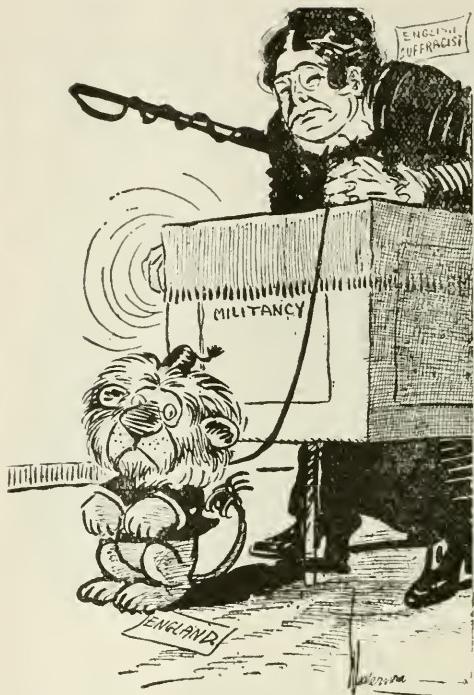
BOR (to Tom): "Look what we have to arrest, and look what we have to leave alone!"



[Berlin.]

THE NAVAL AGREEMENT.

IVAN: "Dear John Bull, I have come about that Fleet Agreement. . . . Ah! I see you are occupied with domestic affairs, so I won't disturb you."



[Ohio.]

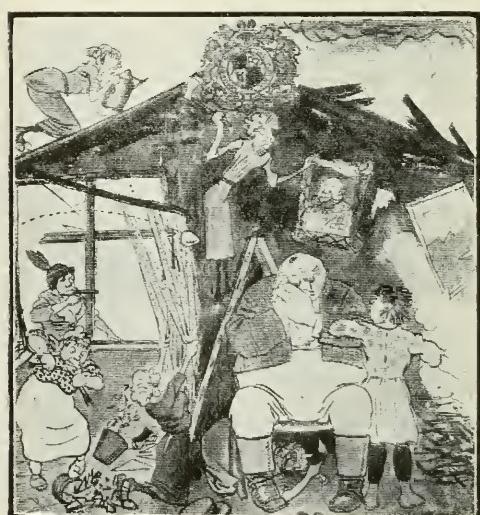
OUT OF THE KING OF BEASTS.



[Berlin.]

SUFFRAGETTE POISON.

One drop is enough to kill a giant. But John Bull seems to be able to stand it easily.



[Berlin.]

JOHN BULL AT HOME.

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR, 1870-71.

French Versus German 44 Years Ago.

At this time we are naturally particularly interested in any recent war which will help us at all to understand the position in Europe just now, or will throw any light upon the possibilities of the future. The Franco-Prussian war is obviously the one with which the present campaign is most easily compared. There are, however, some fundamental differences which make a close comparison of little value. It is probable though that the Germans will attempt to carry out some of the manoeuvres and operations which were crowned with such conspicuous success in 1870.

The immense advance in weapons of precision during the last forty-five years is far more remarkable than that in the previous hundred. The repeating rifle was, of course, utterly unknown at the time of the war between France and Germany, the mitrailleuse was, it is true, used by the French, but it could only fire eleven shots, at a time, and its mechanism was far from perfect. Field guns had a comparatively short range, and the siege guns were toys compared to the terrible weapons used nowadays. The breech-loading rifle even was an innovation, and had been introduced by the Prussians in the struggle with Austria in 1866. The French had a better weapon in the chassepot, but their artillery was not so good as that of their opponents, nor was it so well served. The great improvement in weapons has made impossible many of the tactics of 1870-71, but it is the aeroplane which absolutely prevents the occurrence of situations common in every previous war, where rival commanders were necessarily ignorant of the strength of the forces opposed to them.

It is the Balkan war which parallels this present conflict most nearly, but there, even, owing to the immense disparity in numbers and efficiency between the combatants, not very many

useful lessons can be drawn. The following brief account of the Franco-Prussian War, 1870-71, may, however, be, of some value in following events to-day. On another page we give a chronological comparison between the development of the Franco-German campaign in 1870-71, and the present struggle, as far as it has gone. It will be seen at once that movements have been far more rapid this time. The Germans had fought their way through Belgium, and reached the French frontier in nineteen days, whereas it took them twenty days before they were ready to cross their own frontier into France, in 1870. The same speed in mobilisation and the assumption of the offensive was shown by the Allies in the Balkans.

Napoleon III. declared war against Prussia on July 15th, 1870, and that declaration was delivered in Berlin on the 19th. It was not until the 26th that there was any clash of arms, and that was merely a slight skirmish. Fifteen days after the declaration of war the French invaded Germany, and attacked Saarbruck, but were repulsed. On August 2nd, they made a second, and this time successful assault, driving out the Prussians. The latter speedily assumed the offensive, and crossed the frontier two days later. They never went back until France was beaten.

In all the earlier battles the Prussians were actually fewer than the French, but they won the fights. Their soldiers had had drilled into them, as the first necessity of warfare, to "make for the cannon thunder." The result was that in all the early fights, the moment the guns began to growl, every regiment and brigade marched post-haste towards the sound. Often the guns were merely tentatively trying the French position, and the hastening soldiers transformed a reconnaissance into a battle. They waited not for the ar-

tillery to prepare the way for them, they tarried not for tactical movements; they went headlong for the "cannon thunder." Their leaders could not control them; all they could do, once the battle was joined, was to see that more, and ever more, men were hurried to the scene of action.

Neither the German nor the French leaders knew the strength of the opposing forces. Moltke, that seventy-year-old veteran, who guided the destinies of Prussia's army, was often wrong in his deductions, as he failed to take into account political pressure on the French generals, consequently, at Woerth, at Forbach, at Mars-la-Tour, at Gravelotte, the Germans found themselves engaged, not with an advance guard only, as they at first thought, but with entire armies. In the first battle of the war, Spichern, the Prussians numbered 42,000, with 120 guns, the French, 64,000, and 210 guns. It was a battle of the "hasten to the gun thunder" order, and so greatly did the Prussians hasten, that they brought 78 guns into action, and 27,000 men, whereas, the French, despite their superior numbers, were able to put only 90 guns into action, and 24,000 men. At Woerth, the Germans got 77,500 out of their total of 82,000 into action, whilst the French, who might have had 50,000 on the field, only succeeded in deploying 37,000, and of these no fewer than 20,100 were killed or wounded!

At Mars-la-Tour, Von Alvensleben, commanding the third army corps, suddenly found himself confronting the entire French army—at least three times as numerous as his command. His nearest supports were a day's march distant, but he at once attacked, with every man, and continued to attack furiously, hoping that his audacity would conceal his weakness. It did; but the aeroplane would to-day make such a "bluff" impossible. The French claimed the victory, but withdrew, leaving nearly 20,000 killed and wounded. The Germans lost heavily also, some 17,000 being killed and disabled. It was during this fight that a German regiment made a Balaclava charge on

a French battery, which decimated it. Quick-firing guns would make such a feat impossible in the present war. Two days later the sanguinary battle of Gravelotte was fought. It lasted twelve hours, and ended by the Germans winning the hill, after many desperate charges. They lost 25,000 killed and wounded, the French, 19,000. This defeat compelled Bazaine to retreat into Metz. Once forced into the fortress, he found himself unable to escape, despite many desperate sorties. Nine weeks later he was forced to surrender. He was starved into submission. Had he only had the usual garrison of 20,000 men, he would have been able to hold out far longer. The army thus captured consisted of three marshals, 66 generals, 6000 officers, 173,000 men, 400 guns, and 100 mitrailleuses. Metz had kept the whole of Prince Frederick Charles's army of 180,000 back from the advance into France.

This Prince showed himself one of the most able of the German generals; he was a nephew of Emperor William I. His daughter married the Duke of Connaught. Having bottled Bazaine up in Metz, and left an army to subdue him, and prevent him attacking them in the rear, the Germans marched to meet Marshal MacMahon, who, with 150,000 men, was hastening to effect a junction with Bazaine. The actions which led up to the debacle at Sedan could hardly be repeated to-day. The Germans were able to march fifteen miles a day, the French averaged five! There were seven army corps in the German army, and only four in the French. Nevertheless, Moltke's methods, which were of the cast iron order, left his opponent many openings. The German information was inadequate; it was slowly transmitted to headquarters, and consequently, Moltke was always more or less in the dark as to the French doings. He knew where they ought to be, according to military rules, but political considerations made MacMahon break even the most essential ones. Wireless and the aeroplane would have resulted in an even more speedy end to the French army of the North! As it was, if MacMahon had had a really

efficient army, Metz might have been relieved, because, in order to meet the oncoming French force, Prince Frederick Charles had to send nearly half his men to assist the other two German armies. But MacMahon was so slow that the Prussians were able to utilise other forces, and Metz was again strongly invested. Bazaine's opportunity had passed.

Meanwhile, by forced marches, the German troops surrounded Sedan, and, ringed round by a wall of fire, the entire French Army surrendered. The final effort was a magnificent charge, by the imprisoned cavalry, who thrice strove to break through the line of Saxons, who, by super-human efforts, had arrived, just in time to block the only door of escape to the north. The German Emperor, watching from a hill, saw the horsemen mowed down again and again, never being able even to reach the foes who were slaying them, and said, as he turned from the sight, "Oh, the brave fellows! Oh, the brave fellows!"

Twenty-five thousand French prisoners were taken during the furious fights which preceded the surrounding of the town; 83,000 surrendered next day, and some 14,000 wounded were later found lying about the field of battle. MacMahon and the Emperor Napoleon III. were amongst those taken. Four hundred and nineteen guns fell into the hands of the Germans, 70 mitrailleuses, and 150 fortress guns. Three thousand French soldiers escaped into Belgium, where they were disarmed. Sedan, which is surrounded by low hills, is no place to defend against modern artillery, and only a demoralised and beaten army would have sought refuge there.

It will be seen that it took the Germans about four weeks after the declaration of war to seriously assume the offensive, but three weeks later one of the French field armies was imprisoned in Metz, and the other destroyed, and the Germans were on the road to Paris. In two weeks they sat down before the capital, and Moltke confidently anticipated its capitulation in six weeks. It held out for nineteen!

Instead of the war ending with the arrival of the German legions at Paris, it had, in a way, just begun. Before that, the nation as a whole had left matters to the army, but the capture of the Emperor was the signal for a revolution. A republic was created, and called out the Garde Mobile, and the Garde Nationale. Gambetta, by immense energy, created and equipped a new army of 600,000 men, with 1400 guns. In Chanzy and Faidherbe the French at last found two capable generals, who, on several occasions, defeated the Germans, although they led the rawest of raw troops.

The German strategy showed up very poorly in the fighting with Chanzy, round Orleans, but they were usually in much smaller force than he was, although naturally better equipped, and with much experience of war. The long line of communications between the army outside Paris, and Germany, was seriously threatened, but Paris capitulated before the steadily improving army with Chanzy could achieve any very notable success. Bourbaki, with 150,000 men, was sent to relieve Belfort, and was actually nearer the fortress than the German army of 60,000 men, sent to intercept him. He was a poor leader, however, and suffered defeat before the fortress. A new German army was hastily made up from forces detached from the other armies in the field, and the troops before Paris. Led by Manteuffel, it hastened after Bourbaki, and drove his army into Switzerland, where it remained till the end of the war.

The people were sick of the war, and welcomed peace, despite the heavy price they had to pay. The Germans demanded the cession of parts of Alsace and Lorraine, and the payment of £200,000,000. German troops occupied certain French towns and Departments until the entire indemnity was paid. The last German soldier quitted France on 13th of September, 1873.

At the end of July, a couple of weeks after the declaration of war, there were 250,000 French soldiers under arms, and 384,000 Germans. In the middle of November there were 600,000 French

and 425,000 Germans under arms. After the surrender of Paris, there were 534,000 French soldiers available, and 835,000 German. During the war 720,000 men surrendered to the Germans, or were forced to enter neutral territory, where they were disarmed.

The French lost 156,000 dead (17,000 dying of wounds and sickness in German hands), and 143,000 wounded or disabled. The Germans lost 17,500 killed outright in battles, and 10,500 died of wounds and disease, making a total of 28,000 dead. They lost also 101,000 wounded and disabled. The Germans refused to recognise the irregular franc-tireurs as soldiers, and shot them when captured. The franc-tireurs were responsible for the deaths of many Germans, and they goaded their foes into many acts of retaliation. Twenty-two French villages were burned, and 150 peasants shot for illicit practices,

i.e., non-combatants firing on soldiers, and the like.

The Germans certainly won all their first battles by bringing masses of men against a single point, and hammering away until they broke through the opposing forces. Later, they relied greatly upon their artillery, and sought to outflank the French, usually with conspicuous success.

The *Quarterly Review*, commenting upon the war, stated that "the causes of the early ruin of the French army were: 1, the enormous superiority of the Germans in regard to numbers; 2, the absolute unity of their command and concert of operation; 3, their superior mechanism in equipment, and supplies; 4, the superior intelligence, steadiness, and discipline of the soldiers; 5, the superior education of the officers, and the dash and intelligence of the cavalry."

DIARY OF THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

France declared war against Prussia on July 15, 1870. The cause does not concern us much now, but, commenting on Napoleon III's action at the time, "The Times" said: "The greatest national crime that we have had the pain of recording since the days of the first French Revolution has been consummated. War is declared—an unjust but premeditated war."

Days of War.

- July 15, 1870. The Emperor Napoleon III. declares war.
- 4 .. 10. The Declaration is delivered in Berlin.
- 11 .. 26. Skirmish at Niederbronn. French success.
- 15 .. 30. French attack Saarbruck and are repulsed.
- 18 Aug. 2. French bombard and take Saarbruck.
- 20 .. 4. The Prussians cross the frontier and drive back the French at Wissemburg.
- 22 .. 6. Battle of Woerth, Marshal MacMahon defeated. Saarbruck recaptured. Fierce battle at Forbach (France). French retreat.
- 25 .. 9. Phalsburg invested by Prussians.
- 26 .. 10. Strassburg invested.
- 28 .. 12. Nancy occupied without resistance from the French. The Bavarians cross the Vosges.
- 30 .. 14. French defeated before Metz, viz., at Courcelles, Mars-la-Tour and Gravelotte.

DIARY OF THE WAR OF 1914.

The cables about the struggle are so vague, so misleading, and so inaccurate in many particulars, that it is almost impossible to set forth the events of the war in chronological order. The imperfect information we do receive is usually several days old, but the cables are seldom dated. We are obliged to assume much which later will probably be shown to be inaccurate. As the war started on August 1st, the dates up to September 1st represent the number of days the war has lasted.

June.

- 28. The Archduke Francis Ferdinand assassinated.

July.

- 22. Austria presents ultimatum to Servia.
- 26. After consultation with Russia, Servia rejects Austria's demands.
- 28. Austria declares war against Servia.
- 30. Germany demands information from Russia as to cause of mobilisation of her army.
- 31. Russia regrets that it is now impossible to stop mobilisation.

Aug.

- 1. Germany declares war against Russia.
- 2. Russian troops enter Germany. Russian fleet driven back by the German ships.
- 3. Germany invades Belgium.
- 4. War declared by Great Britain on Germany. Germany declares war on France. The Liege forts attacked.
- 5. German invading army reported repulsed with great slaughter at Treron, near Liege.

- 31 .. 15. German Baltic Ports blockaded by French Fleet.
- 40 .. 24. Germans repulsed at Verdun.
- 41 .. 25. Germans occupy Chalons.
- 42 .. 26. Bazaine's attempt to escape from Metz frustrated.
- 44 .. 28. Two German armies (220,000 strong) set forth on march to Paris.
- 47 .. 31. After several engagements, some of which were in their favour, the French northern army retreats to Sedan.
- 49 Sept. 2. After fierce fighting Sedan capitulates with entire army (150,000) and Emperor Napoleon.
- 57 .. 10. German assault on Toul repulsed.
- 62 .. 15. Germans reach Paris and siege begins.
- 66 .. 19. Versailles surrenders.
- 70 .. 23. Toul surrenders.
- 74 .. 27. Strassburg surrenders with garrison of 17,500 men (after 48 days' siege).
- 82 Oct. 5. Germans defeated on the Loire.
- 87 .. 10. French on Loire suffer defeat.
- 88 .. 11. Bombardment of Paris begins.
- 104 .. 27. Marshal Bazaine surrenders Metz, with 180,000 men (after 60 days' siege).
- 111 Nov. 3. Germans invest Belfort.
- 116 .. 8. Verdun capitulates, with 4000 men (74 days' siege).
- 117 .. 9. Germans defeated near Orleans.
- 118 .. 10. French retake Orleans.
- 125 .. 17. Germans repulse the army of the Loire.
- 132 .. 24. Germans defeated near Amiens.
- 142 Dec. 4. Germans recapture Orleans (10,000 prisoners).
- 150 .. 12. Germans occupy Dieppe. Phalsburg surrenders (125 days' siege).
- 170 Jan. 1. Mezieres capitulates with 2000 men and 106 guns.
- 181 .. 12. After six days' severe fighting Germans enter Le Mans (20,000 prisoners).
- 197 .. 28. Paris capitulates (133 days' siege).
- 199 .. 30. Advance of Germans into France stopped.
- 201 Feb. 1. 80,000 French soldiers driven into Switzerland.
- 213 .. 13. Belfort capitulates with the honours of war.
- 229 March. 1. Germany's terms are accepted by the French National Assembly. German troops enter Paris.
- 231 .. 3. German troops leave Paris.
- 239 .. 11. Germans leave Versailles.
- 250 .. 28. Peace Conference opens at Brussels.
- 260 May 10. Treaty of Peace signed at Frankfort.
8. German reports state Liege occupied. Servians enter Austria. Belgians report severe repulse of Germans at Liege. French seize passes in the Vosges mountains.
9. Germans again reported defeated before Liege.
10. Belgians report rout of Germans near Brussels.
11. Belgians admit Germans have been in Liege some days. Germans reported to have passed Liege, and to be advancing on Brussels. Germans repulsed at Dinant.
13. France declares war on Austria. German repulse reported at Diest, northeast of Brussels. Austrians reported to be in Russian Poland.
14. Britain declares war on Austria.
15. A French army, 300,000 strong, assumes offensive in Alsace.
16. Further French victories reported from Alsace. Japan presents ultimatum to Germany. General Russian advance begins.
17. Servia claims utter rout of Austrian army. Rout of Germans reported from Ramlies.
18. Belgian seat of Government transferred from Brussels to Antwerp.
19. Landing of British expeditionary force reported successfully carried out. Germans capture Tirlemont, near Brussels. Germans reported repulsed at Namur.
20. Germans enter Brussels. Liege forts said to be still holding out; German reports stated that they were captured some time ago.
21. Germans demand £8,000,000 from Brussels.
22. Great battle begins at Namur.
23. Germans take Namur and Charleroi; the latter re-taken by Allies; Allies stated to be assuming the offensive.
24. Allies fall back to French frontier.
25. French and British reported to be attacking Germans all along the line.
26. Allies fall back past Maubeuge.
27. After gallant resistance, Allies retreat, and Germans reported 120 miles from Paris. Germans take Malines and Longwy.
28. Boulogne abandoned. Germans at Amiens. Paris prepares for a siege.
31. Officially announced from Paris that German advance has been stopped.

Sept.

- Russians defeat Austrians, and win a tremendous victory. Germans at La Fere, seventy miles from Paris.
- Allies continue to fall back slightly.
- Germans within touch of Paris defences. French Government transferred to Bordeaux.
- Germans reported endeavouring to cut off Paris from main French army.
- Allies reported to have driven back the Germans all along the line.



EUROPE AT THE END OF THE 10th CENTURY.



EUROPE AT THE END OF THE 12th CENTURY.

KALEIDOSCOPIC EUROPE.

Whatever the result of the present war, some alteration in the map of Europe must follow. The conquering Allies would no doubt almost dismember Austria, and victorious Germany would insist on ports on the North Sea, and a re-arrangement of the latest boundaries in the troubled Balkans. These things are obvious. How much more Russia, for instance, might demand—German Poland, Galicia, Constantinople, and parts of Armenia—depends largely upon the extent of her successes, and on the other hand a triumphant Germany might easily demand far more than Antwerp and the Scheldt, might conceivably compel Russia to return the old German provinces on the Baltic, and insist upon the cession of Russian Poland. We can only speculate as to what may happen, but at this time a survey of the various ways in which Europe has been divided during the last ten centuries has particular interest.

The following maps indicate, very roughly of course, the many changes which have taken place in the hegemony of European nations at some of the most critical periods of history. The maps visualise for us the fact that Europe, as we know it to-day, is of very recent arrangement, and shows us how certain nations have waxed and waned. We notice, for instance, that Germany as a single powerful state ceased to exist between 1500 and 1871, that the Hapsburgs controlled an immense territory and, at one time, through the German line and the Spanish line, had all the best of Europe in their charge. We see how the Turks swept into Europe, once holding almost all the south-eastern part of the continent, from Vienna itself. We know how this Empire has shrunk until only 6500

square miles are now under Ottoman sway in Europe.

In none of the maps does Italy appear as a single kingdom. The peninsula was divided always into many rival States, and much of it was under Austrian control. It was not until 1859 that the Italian nation came into being. Poland we see grow steadily in size and power, but in 1795 it vanished entirely off the map. The Tsar promises now to restore the kingdom and give it all its ancient privileges, of which the Russians, more than any other people, had robbed it. Presumably the new kingdom will include Galicia and German Poland, as well as that portion of the old Poland which has been so unquiet under the crushing rule of the Tsars.

The maps show us how France took on its present form before the 16th century, how in Spain the different provinces united, and after the Moors had been subdued in 1492, became a single nation. We see how England, Scotland and Ireland unite and become a homogeneous whole; how the Austrian Empire held sway over Germany, Austria, Northern Italy and Savoy, and how one after another the tributary States freed themselves. We notice countries which once loomed large on the map disappear entirely as separate States, e.g., Burgundy, Poland, Lorraine, Savoy, Piedmont, the two Sicilies, the Papal States, Venice and Sardinia.

Since 1815 the most notable thing has been the steady and irresistible advance of the Slav. Before that, apart from the rapid changes—not of race, but of sovereignty—in Central Europe, the mighty advance of the Russians is the most notable feature on the maps. Into that huge Empire went the Letts, the Portzinaks, the Lithuanians; Astrakan,



EUROPE AT THE MIDDLE OF THE 16th CENTURY: CONTROLLED BY THE HAPSBURGS.



EUROPE IN 1715, AFTER THE WAR OF SPANISH SUCCESSION.



EUROPE UNDER NAPOLEON, 1810.



EUROPE AFTER WATERLOO, 1815.

Crimea, and later still Finland and Poland. Bulgaria, a great state in the 10th century, disappears off the maps we reproduce, but to-day has won recognition and territory from the Turk. Servia has been re-born and clamours to rule its nationals in Bosnia and in Hungary. Roumania is recognised as a powerful kingdom, half Latin, half Slav, which, when Austrian partition takes place will absorb the large territory occupied by its nationals in Hungary. Bohemia has already won a great measure of independence from Austria, and has strong tendencies towards Russia, so much so that a crushing victory of the Allies will no doubt give her the opportunity of putting herself permanently under Russian rule.

Thus we see the old Kingdoms and States—Great Britain, France, Spain, Italy—standing fast within definite boundaries, and the Slavs spreading steadily and inevitably throughout all the last of Europe except where the German States have hitherto held a line from Trieste to Königsberg. The Hungarians, a violently anti-Slav nation, are now almost entirely surrounded by peoples of Slav descent. The maps demonstrate the apparent soundness of the contention of those who hold that the future of Europe is in the hands of the Slavs, not the Latins, the Teutons, or the Saxons. They also indicate the fundamental cause of the present war, namely, that Germany became a nation and a first-class power too late.

In 1871 the whole world had been parcelled out amongst the great powers and there was nothing left for the Germans, who also wanted a "place in the sun." Portugal, Spain and Holland had colonies everywhere; France, too, had taken much territory to herself. The Napoleonic wars gave Britain many colonies by right of conquest, the national movement in South America deprived Spain and Portugal of their

vast territories there, and the United States flung her protection over these new States, thus barring a possible field to German expansion. But the national spirit, fostered, and always growing, during the last forty years in the German Empire, chafed more and more at the limitation imposed on colonial expansion. This war will give the Empire colonies or end, for a hundred years or more, all chance of her getting any.

In the first map—Europe in 1000—the kingdom of Germany consisted of Lorraine, Saxony, Franconia, Bavaria, and other provinces, and was the chief State in the Holy Roman Empire—which comprised all that territory surrounded by a thick line. The Eastern Roman Empire, ruled from Constantinople, was still powerful.

The second map—Europe in 1200—still shows Germany powerful, although Poland and Austria had encroached upon her boundaries. The Holy Roman Empire had by that time absorbed Burgundy, Corsica and Sardinia, but had lost Venice. Most of France and the whole of England were under the rule of the Angevins (Henry II.—Richard II.). The Turks were already battering the frontiers of the East Roman Empire. The Hungarians had pushed through to the Adriatic and the Poles had founded Poland. The Prussians, too, were beginning to feel themselves a nation.

The third map—1550—shows Europe under the domination of the Hapsburgs, represented by the powerful Charles V. These were the days of the Reformation, and had it not been for the aid of the German Reformers France would probably have been forced temporarily under Hapsburg rule. As it was, helped also by the advance of the Turks in the East, France managed to not only preserve her territory but to augment it somewhat. At that time Charles V. controlled the Holy Roman Empire, Spain, the two Sicilies, Sardinia, Milan,

Burgundy and the Netherlands. Charles abdicated in 1556, leaving the Empire to his brother Ferdinand, and Spain, the Netherlands, and his Italian possessions to his son Philip. It was the latter who fought so strenuously against Protestantism. It was he who built up the vast Spanish oversea empire, and who launched the Armada against England. It was during the 16th century that Europe may be said to have passed from mediæval to modern times.

The fourth map shows Europe in 1715, after the war of the Spanish Succession. Great Britain, at that time, was taking a much greater share in European politics. The decadence of Spain had coincided with Britain's rise to power as a Colonial Empire. The capture of Gibraltar, of Minorca, the establishment of settlements in Canada and America gave her that desire for the command of the sea which has been her basic policy ever since. At this time Austria obtained not only Belgium, which she retained until the end of the 18th century, but also took over the old Spanish possessions in Italy, which she only relinquished in 1859. The Prussians were steadily becoming stronger, and during the next century they seized Silesia and assisted Russia and Austria in the partition of Poland, which, as shown in the map, was at its zenith in 1715. The wave of Turkish invasion had been stayed, Hungary had liberated itself from the Ottoman yoke, and the Russians were pressing in from the north. The map shows that portion of Greece, called Morea, as part of Venice. It was, however, recovered by the Turks soon after, and remained in their possession until 1830, after Admiral Codrington, commanding the British, French and Russian ships, had annihilated the Turkish fleet off Navarino. Louis XIV. died in 1715. Under his rule France reached her most commanding position in Europe—save for the brief Napoleonic era. The King seized Strasburg

during a time of peace, and attempted to annex Luxemburg. He set his grandson on the throne of Spain, and generally acted on the aggressive until the rest of Europe and Britain defeated him in the Spanish War of Secession.

The fifth map shows Napoleon's Europe. He ruled directly over the French Empire. Spain, Poland, the German Provinces, Naples and Sweden were dependent States. Denmark and Norway, too, were forced to be in alliance with him. The only countries holding out against him were Great Britain, Prussia, Austria and Russia.

The last map shows how Europe readjusted herself after Waterloo. The German Confederation spread until it included all the present German States and also Bohemia and the German Provinces of Austria. Prussia added the Rhine provinces to herself, and also part of Poland. Austria resumed control of much of Italy. Russia annexed portions of the Turkish Empire. Holland and Belgium became the Netherlands. Norway and Sweden united under Napoleon's Marshal, Bernadotte. The Kingdom of Poland appears on the map, but since 1795 it had been entirely under the control of Russia. The first partition of this once powerful State took place in 1772, the second in 1793, and the final division in 1795. Of the original 282,000 square miles which was at one time Poland, Prussia got 57,000 square miles, Austria 45,000, and Russia the lion's share, 180,000. The Kingdom of Poland is a name only, for all the autonomic institutions of the country have been ruthlessly swept away, the Polish language has been entirely superseded by the Russian, and the country has been entirely Russified, just as, despite all promises to the contrary, Finland has been. The fate of the latter is hardly likely to inspire confidence in the Poles in the present Russian promises.

*[Photo, by Hume & Co.]*

HER EXCELLENCY, LADY HELEN MUNRO-FERGUSON.

THE GOOD SAMARITAN.

SUCCOURING THE SICK AND WOUNDED IN WAR

A certain man went down from Jerusalem to Jericho, and fell among thieves, which stripped him of his raiment, and wounded him, and departed, leaving him half dead.

But a certain Samaritan, as he journeyed, came where he was: and when he saw him, he had compassion on him.

And went to him, and bound up his wounds, pouring in oil and wine, and set him on his own beast, and brought him to an inn, and took care of him.

Of all the characters Christ made live for us in the Gospels, none dwells more lovingly in our remembrance than that of the Good Samaritan. The man who having no personal knowledge of the sufferer fallen among thieves yet cared for him with the tenderness of a mother, wakes in us feelings of admiration and pride, not evoked by the great warriors of the Old Testament or the mighty Gospellers of the New. And so it is to this day. Those who, caring not of what nationality is the soldier, yet succour him and save his life just because he is sick and sore and wounded, are deserving of our deepest sympathy, of our greatest admiration and above all of our most earnest help.

SAVING LIFE, NOT TAKING IT.

To care for the wounded, to lighten somewhat the grievous hurt and ghastly suffering wrought when nations make grim war is a glorious work, but one which, more than any other, requires proper supplies and adequate assistance. This is where everyone from the least to the greatest can help. We have patriotic funds, comforts funds, etc., all admirable in their way, but the Red Cross Society is the only organisation which is saving life now. As is usual with Great Britain, much is left to voluntary effort. It is different on the Continent, where the proper and prompt relief of the wounded is part of the art of war which nations with vast conscript armies have had to study. It is fully recognised there that injured soldiers are of value if they can be rapidly repaired, but worse than useless if they cannot get back to the fighting line quickly. In Great Britain hospitals, ambulances, stretchers, etc., exist, it is true, and are adequate for the probable

needs of the standing army, but the additional forces, raised by the State, are not so provided for, and private individuals and societies must very largely see that medical supplies and necessaries are forthcoming. At this very moment, therefore, every effort must be put forward to meet the urgent demands for new equipment and for supplies for the many hospitals and field ambulances already at the front. Hospitals are re-echoing even now to the moans of the wounded and dying French, German, Belgian and British picked up on the battlefield, and brothers again in suffering and death. This is a desperately serious matter, for whilst other funds provide for the welfare of a soldier himself, or for those he leaves behind him if he falls, the Red Cross Society is actually saving his life.

HOW TO SAVE A MAN!

Just think of it. By your own exertions here you may be able to save a fellow man in the blood-drenched fields of Europe who otherwise would slowly perish, his dying agony surely made more terrible by the knowledge that had he but had the attention your action might have been the means of giving him, he would not have had to tread the dark valley. Once we realise this, once we grip the fact that here to our hand we have a means of alleviating the most tragic suffering of war, of actually dragging men back from the jaws of death, surely we will grasp the opportunity with both hands strenuously! It is not difficult. It is easy—and everyone can help. The little tot who can just hold out her hands as her mother winds the wool, the servant girl who fills in a spare moment knitting socks, the toiler who denies himself

some little luxury, are working as greatly for those stricken men in the battle wrack as the lady who gives a thousand shirts, the great merchant who writes his welcome cheque.

WHAT HER EXCELLENCY IS DOING.

It is fortunate for the sick, the wounded, and the dying that someone in Australia had not only the will—we all have that—but also the knowledge to translate nebulous wishes and aspirations into concrete deeds and actions. Her Excellency Lady Helen Ferguson, has not been long in the Commonwealth, but already she is making her influence felt, and in no way more than by the lead she has taken in the Red Cross movement, and the practical manner in which she is organising and superintending the collection and forwarding of money and hospital requisites to the seat of war. The ball-room at Government House has been transformed into a receiving centre for the articles required. The whole process of receiving, acknowledging, sorting, packing, and despatching is thoroughly businesslike. There is no fear of anything going astray. At the same time much care is taken to impress upon donors that uniformity must be preserved as much as possible. For this purpose, definite and concise instructions are sent out so that there may be no misunderstanding or delay. Full particulars about how to help and what to do will be found on page 835.

THE FIRST AMBULANCE.

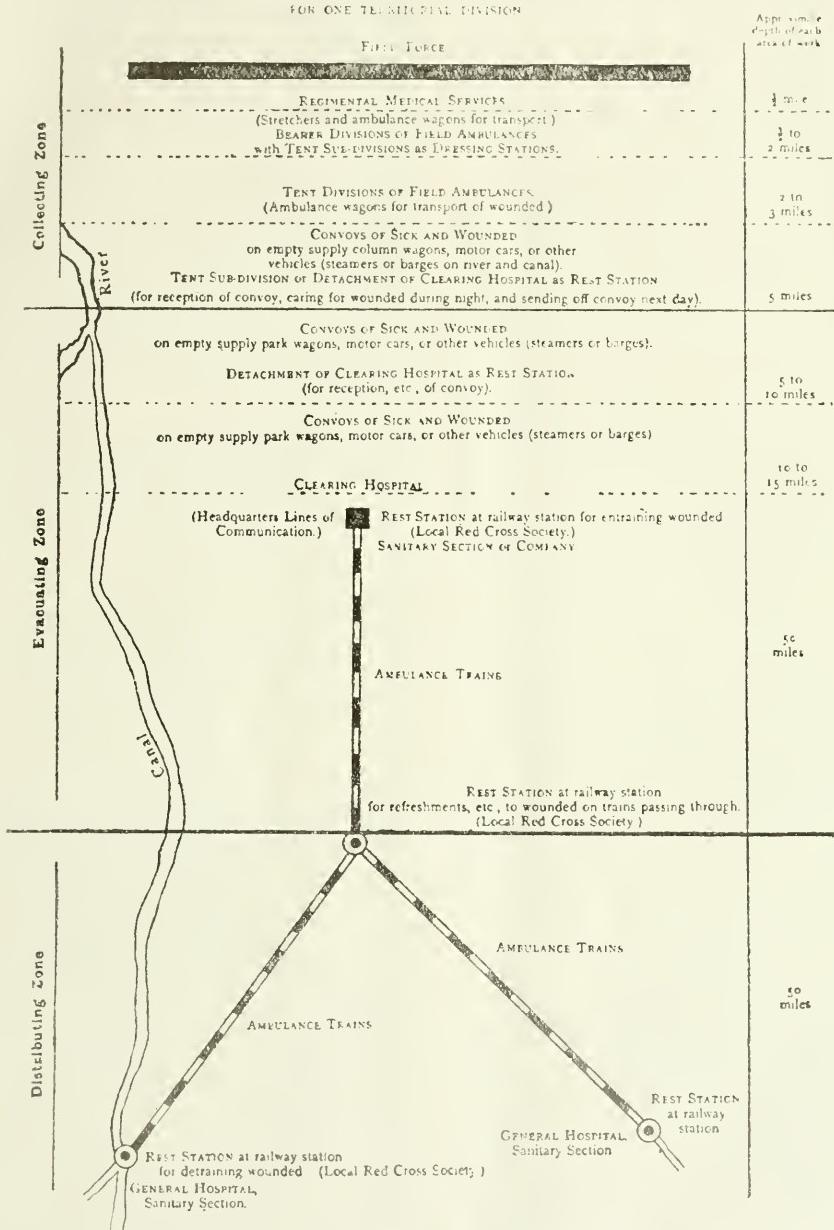
Many people have still but a hazy idea of the work of the Red Cross Society or of the absolute need of such an association if wounded men are to have a fair chance of recovery. Before the days of Napoleon prompt succour of the wounded was never attempted. They lay where they fell, and usually died if too much injured to crawl painfully to some shelter, where later they might be found by their comrades. The great Emperor who always took care of his soldiers, introduced the system of *ambulances volantes*, or flying field hospitals adapted both for giving the needed primary surgical treatment, and for removing the wounded quickly from the fighting zone. This system was sup-

plemented by the organisation of a corps of stretcher-bearers, soldiers trained and equipped for the duty of collecting the wounded while a battle was in progress, and carrying them away to a spot where their wounds could be dressed and their injuries attended to. Before this innovation surgical assistance did not reach the battlefield till the day after the engagement or later, by which time, of course, many of the wounded had succumbed. It was not, however, until 1864, that these men were regarded as non-combatants and sacred from assault and capture. The Geneva Convention of that year adopted the Red Cross flag and badge for ambulance work. This flag has now flown in a thousand fights, and is always respected although charges of treachery and abuse of it are common enough. The truth is, of course, that with the long range weapons of to-day it is impossible for hospitals, waggons, and stretchers to always escape shot and shell.

THE SYSTEM OF COLLECTION.

The modern ambulance system dates from the Civil War in America, a war in which railway hospitals were first used. The Franco-German war proved the value of the ambulance service, and produced a system which in the main is followed to-day. This diagram reproduced from Miss Haldane's booklet on the care of the sick and wounded in the Territorial force indicates the method employed in removing and caring for the wounded in an up-to-date system. It will be seen that the dangerous collecting zone is entered only by the regimental medical services; in the evacuating zone the Red Cross Society comes in and practically takes charge. Its function is to supplement the military organisation, to provide nurses and helpers, medical necessaries such as bandages and the like, and pyjamas, shirts and socks for the men in hospital, whilst it also sees that when discharged they leave in clean garments, and thus have the best instead of the worst chance of getting well. The French and German Red Cross arrangements are splendidly organised and supplied; ours will be if we do everything we can

**DIAGRAMMATIC SCHEME OF MEDICAL ORGANISATION
FOR ONE TERRITORIAL DIVISION**



This diagram represents the general line of links between the front line of a Division and its general hospital. It does not, of course, show the working of an Army Medical Service for an army of several Divisions acting in combination. In that case there would be some modification in the distribution of clearing hospitals, and in distributing sick and wounded to more than one general hospital.

to help. May it never be said that our wounded men had to rely chiefly upon French and German assistance and nursing!

THE JAPANESE SYSTEM.

The Japanese, ever quick to grasp the best in Western civilisation, have developed a Red Cross system which is recognised as the most efficient in the world. Not only is its organisation magnificent, but it has connected with it a sanitary corps which devotes itself exclusively to the prevention of disease amongst the troops. Its value was strikingly demonstrated by the freedom of the soldiers during the Russo-Japanese war from all form of preventable disease. Such immunity had never been known before or indeed since. The Red Cross organisation is under the direct control of the military authorities and medical officers, nurses and attendants have all a recognised footing with various grades in the army. The Society in Japan numbers no less than 1,500,000 paying members, and has an accumulated capital of £1,500,000. Recognising that voluntary helpers are not always the most helpful or skilful, the Society employs only paid persons, and has now some 7000 of these highly trained and approved by the military authorities. Attached to the Society is the Ladies' Voluntary Nursing Association, formed for the purpose of assisting on the work of relief in time of war. It numbers over 10,000, and the members meet from time to time to learn the art of nursing, dressing wounds, making bandages, etc. They provide every soldier with a bandage roll to carry in his pocket, and see also to the supply of hospital necessaries. The Japanese do not believe in ornament, having learned by practical experience that it is almost useless to provide costly delicately designed stretchers, transport waggons, hospital furniture, and the like, which are very nice to look at, but very little use. Instead of spending the funds of the Society on such objects, the relief staff is trained to make improvised supplies with whatever materials are available on the spot.

THE GERMAN SYSTEM.

As is to be expected, the most highly organised army in the world has behind it a highly efficient ambulance system. The whole administration of the ambulance service in the field, is in the hands of the chief of the ambulance sanitary staff, who is attached to headquarters. Next in command come surgeons-general of the armies in the field, surgeons-general of army corps, and then surgeons-in-chief of divisions. Civil consulting surgeons of eminence are also attached to the various armies and divisions. Civil surgeons only follow the British army as volunteers; they are not expected to assist, as they do in France and Germany. The hospital transport service of the Germans is highly organised, and the hospital railway carriages are elaborately equipped. There is in Germany an absolute rule that the Voluntary Aid Service may not be an independent unit apart from the regular service; and if such services are to be employed, they must be dovetailed in with the regular organisation, and controlled by the official authorities. Otherwise they would be a hindrance instead of an assistance to the work of the medical service. The Voluntary Aid Service in time of war is selected from the Red Cross Society and the Knights of St. John, Malta and St. George. The personnel must be of German nationality, and must not belong to the standing army or the reserve. Persons liable to military service are also ineligible. As Germany is a country in which conscription is in force, it is surprising to find that limited in this way, the 1500 and more Voluntary Aid detachments have a membership of over 53,000, all of whom have had to pass a pretty severe medical examination. These men have not merely been through a course of first aid, they are practically and thoroughly trained to undertake life-saving independently, and they are constantly being examined and taught by medical men.

THE FRENCH SYSTEM.

The French rely rather more on voluntary effort than do the Germans, and Voluntary Aid Societies are allowed to work alongside the military

ambulance organisations in much the same manner as are the British. Three Societies are recognised by the War Office—namely, *La Société de Secours aux Blessés Militaires Des Armées de Terre et de Mer*, *L'Union des Femmes de France*, *L'Association des Dames Françaises*. These Societies have their work mapped out exactly for them, the regulations being exceedingly precise, but, so long as they conform to them, they may equip as many auxiliary territorial hospitals as they like. As the ordinary hospitals are, of course, quite inadequate to meet the need in war time, auxiliary hospitals are established everywhere. They are divided into three categories—

(1) Those which can be got ready to receive the sick and wounded on the ninth day of mobilisation. Only those hospitals for which the societies have ready a complete personnel, material and necessary funds for two months' work are classed in this series.

(2) Those which can be got ready by the sixteenth day of mobilisation. Hospitals are classed in this series for which at least half the necessary personnel, materials and funds for two months' work are ready.

(3) Those hospitals not having ready as much as half the necessary personnel, materials and funds form a third series.

The Societies are obliged to possess in peace time all the necessary technical instruments and utensils, surgical dressings, and so on before they can have any of their auxiliary territorial hospitals classed in either the first or second series. They must have also the full personnel ready engaged and the necessary funds to support them. In 1901 the first Society mentioned had everything needed for 20,000 beds in 400 auxiliary hospitals distributed in 198 different towns. The second had 17,915 beds, of which, however, only 7000 could go into the first series as complete. At that time the third Society had not done much, but to-day all three are considerably better equipped than they were then, the last date for which I have been able to get definite particulars. In that year the total membership of the three Societies was 125,000, and their reserve funds totalled about £500,000. As the three Societies are quite independent of each other, overlapping can only be avoided by

the War Office exercising considerable control. The careful preparation for the hospitals and relief work generally during peace educates the people, and saves the Army Medical Service from the risk of being swamped and disorganised by a rush of enthusiastic amateurs whenever war breaks out.

THE BRITISH SYSTEM.

The British practice is well illustrated by the diagram reproduced on page 829 It is chiefly with the way in which the Red Cross Society helps the Army Medical Organisation that we are concerned here. During the South African war it was amply demonstrated that without the aid of this Society thousands of wounded would have been practically uncared for. The numbers of men engaged in the war was far greater than the army organisation could cope with; it was the Red Cross Society and private effort which helped it out. By gifts of clothing, of money, of medical comforts the Society saved hundreds if not thousands of lives. If our Army Medical organisation was overstrained in South Africa, where in comparison to the present struggle wounded were not numerous, what hope has it in France and Belgium of meeting the pressing need were it not that it can confidently rely upon the Red Cross Society for aid. The British troops are leaning on the Society, and the Society appeals to you who read these lines, asking you to see that it does not fail in its high task.

JOTTINGS FROM DOCTORS' REPORTS.

Nothing can make us realise the terrible sufferings and indescribable pain and confusion the Red Cross Society has been founded to alleviate like the actual account of what took place during the Franco-German war. The British Red Cross, at that time called the National Society for Aid to Sick and Wounded in War, did yeoman service on both sides during that memorable struggle; besides sending doctors and nurses, clothes and bandages, it kept up several hospitals, and assisted in many other ways. No less a sum than £296,928 was collected by it, and from this a grant of £41,000 was made to France, and a similar one to Ger-

many for ambulance work. The following extracts are taken from the official report made by the National Society after the war. It contains much information about the work done, and gives some particulars about the experiences of the doctors and helpers at the front. It is not a pleasant thing to read, but it does enable one to have some idea of the terrible sufferings which the Red Cross Society aims at alleviating. In those days Lister's antiseptic treatment had not been generally adopted, and the doctors point out that it was, as a rule, impossible to use it owing to lack of supplies. Chloroform was, however, universally used, and altogether conditions were vastly superior to those which obtained during the Crimean war, where Florence Nightingale rendered such heroic and memorable service.

ON THE BATTLEFIELDS OF LORRAINE.

Dr. Parker, writing from Remilly, in Lorraine, on August 20, 1870, states:—"The place is crowded with wounded; the station was full; all round the station are booths and straw heaps full of sick and wounded. It makes one feel how very insignificant our greatest efforts are." Again, on August 22, he writes from Ste. Marie, near Metz: "Hundreds of poor fellows are lying about in empty, deserted houses, who have scarcely been looked at since the 16th, when they were wounded."

And on August 25, he says: "We are all here working hard. When we first arrived, our services were very much appreciated, owing to the enormous number of wounded lying about."

Mr. Barton Smith reports that after the battle of Gravelotte, "the villages between Briey and Pont-a-Mousson were crammed with wounded, not a house but was filled to overflowing. My stock of bandages with which the Baroness de Rothschild had provided me came to an end. I found men lying totally neglected, in one instance, for a space of ten days, in the village of Jarnay, as far as medical and surgical aid went."

Writing on September 7, from St. Barbe, on the north-east of Metz, Mr. Smith says that even at that date the

distress for medical assistance beggared description. Men on the point of death lying under sheds on straw; others with badly broken limbs hopping about, and sitting on the wet ground. One surgeon had 180 cases as his share of the work."

ON THE BATTLEFIELD FOR FIVE DAYS.

After the battle of Sedan, there was great need of help, which was met, to a considerable extent, by the Anglo-American Ambulance. At this time the following facts are reported by Mr. Lloyd to have come under his personal observation: "On September 5, Captain de Kantzow and I started at 5 p.m. in a cart laden with wine, brandy, cigars, biscuits, and surgical dressings, and arrived at the village of Bazeilles, the ruins of which were still smoking, large pieces of wall falling across the road every now and then. The devastation on all sides was terrible; of the village itself, recently numbering a population of about two thousand eight hundred souls, but one small house remained untouched. On our arrival we heard that there were many wounded men in the neighbouring chateau of Bazeilles who needed help; we proceeded thither at once, and we found about sixteen hundred wounded, both French and German, lying side by side in every available part of the mansion, in the orangery, and in every part of the grounds; in several places the dead and living lay together. To attend to this frightful misery, there were but five surgeons; some of the wounded, having only just been brought in, had hitherto received no attention at all, and nearly all had but the first dressings applied. Hunger, thirst, and pain were rife among them, and, in fact, misery was so general that the difficulty was to know where to begin work for its relief." Referring to this expedition, Mr. Chater, who was associated with Mr. Lloyd, states that relief was given on September 5, "to some poor fellows who were still lying on a part of the field since the memorable battle of September 1."

DISEASE AND DEATH.

To add to the calamity, shortly after the battle of Sedan army epidemics

began to appear, and medical attendance, properly so called, was urgently required. The following extracts from letters by Dr. Davis, from Pont Mougis, October 10, 1870, give some painful details, showing the extent of need: "I was told on September 17, by some Prussian officers, that at this place there were nearly six hundred cases of typhus, typhoid, dysentery, etc., the sufferers being Bavarians, and that things could be scarcely worse than they were."

Mr. Trench and I paid a visit on the 18th to the place, saw for ourselves, and gathered all the information we could from the two doctors that were here. Not one tithe of the misery had been told us; we found 530 men distributed over seven different buildings of various sizes. They were all *medical* cases, not surgical, and the majority consisted of fevers of various kinds. I may venture to remark that such cases need less medicine than good air, good and suitable food, comfortable bedding, and careful nursing. None could be more sensible of these things than the two Bavarian doctors in charge of the ambulance; but their hands were tied, and their minds were almost distracted when we saw them, because of the small supplies: indeed, I should be more exact in saying, the absolute absence of supplies at their disposal.

"In the large machine rooms lay upward of 300 upon the *earthen* floor with a wool-sack beneath them. Dirt and filth, which I need not describe, lay all around them. Not a window was opened, no disinfectant was used, no careful nurse was there to make clean—I won't say comfortable—the dysenteric men; the infirmers were few because many of them had been stricken down by the typhus; the odour was also too perceptible, and the system felt almost overcome by it.

"I shall not say more than just refer to one or two dead ones lying amongst the dying, no one knowing for how many minutes or hours, and to speak of the misery depicted upon 500 faces and uttered by scores of groans, would be preposterous; they can easily be imagined under the circumstances; and I

am sure that the most lively imagination will fail to rise to the height of the facts.

"A drop of water is the request of one; a sip of wine would be grateful to another; a third cannot eat the dry piece of bread and the morsel of hard meat, while another says what no one can understand, for he has delirium. As to provisions, we were informed that two or three bottles of wine, a few lemons, and a loaf or two of bread comprised their stores, and what they should do for the next day they knew not. The Mayor had told the doctors that it was vain to issue further requisitions upon the commune, for there was nothing to be obtained in it."

GENEROUS, BUT UNPRACTICAL.

"England," say Messrs. Hart and Hill, "has far surpassed all other countries in the abundance of supplies, while she has fallen very short in making the supplies speedily available and most useful."

THE NEED OF NURSES.

Dr. Davis, who did important service in ambulances near Sedan, where there were no nurses, but who had opportunities of seeing them at work elsewhere, writes, on September 26, as follows:—"I have been extremely grieved to find such a perfect absence of ladies at the various ambulances. How the poor fellows get on without their tender care I certainly wonder, and, indeed, I feel certain that the mortality would be less were the sufferers favoured by the presence and aid of some of our English lady-nurses; for can any but women endure the monotonous round of the same thing, day by day? or are men to be found willing and able to sustain successive nights of wakefulness? I wish I knew how to persuade some of our Christian ladies of the United Kingdom to follow the example of Miss Pearson and her company, whom I saw this afternoon full of delight because smiling faces were worn by most of their patients."

A GALLANT SURGEON.

"At Balan, then, I found Dr. Frank and Mr. Blewitt at work in the Mairie, given over to them as a hospital. If

England can ever gain kind thoughts from France and Prussia, it is by the work of such men as these—Frank dressing wounded men all through the battle, in a house where the bullets came in like hail through the windows, and crashed into the walls of the room

—Blewitt going out through the hot fire to get what was needed to help. It must have been an awful fight here; 129 Bavarian officers, and 2000 men killed in and about Balan. Street fighting in its worst form; and what is worse than street fighting? They had gone from Sedan to Balan the night before the battle, on purpose to be ready for the work. And now I found them at the work, and no words that I could use would express the pride that I felt that such men had come out from us. They had then 120 wounded, and I learn that they have since got many more. I will tell you what I saw. I found them dressing a wounded Bavarian, who had been hit in the left side by a chassepot ball, which had passed through his left lung, and out through his spine. I wish the people who have given us money so generously could have seen that one sight alone. The young, handsome, plucky Bavarian, sitting so coolly while his wounds were dressed, with a solution of carbolic acid, leaning so completely on Frank, who is a woman in gentleness, and a man in strength and firmness, and a young girl of the village helping him and Blewitt bravely and quietly. The next case I saw him dress was a French soldier, wounded in the thigh by a needle-gun bullet, which seems not to be yet extracted, and who groaned, so that Frank gave him chloroform, while Blewitt dressed his wound. Those were but two sights of many. There they lay together, side by side, French and Germans, enemies no longer, all quiet in their common suffering. Floors covered with poor fellows, with every sort of wound. Some dying with balls through the chest, some with crushed arms or legs from shells. One Frenchman had lain for three days in a ditch, and was brought in to have his thigh amputated. He asked for a cigar the moment the amputation was over. Another Bavarian, with his thigh and hip smashed to pieces by a shell, and alas,

in such a condition that I could not go near him, though his wounds are dressed with pure carbolic acid. The wounds are now in their stage of suppuration, and a cigar was necessary for men who, like myself, are not accustomed to such places. But I must pay the highest tribute to Dr. Frank for the care with which his patients are tended, the cleanliness and purity of his hospitals, and the evident love with which he was regarded by his wounded. He is a man of endless resources. But I found him badly off for chloroform, while at Douzy they had cases of it lying useless. His subcutaneous syringes for morphia were worn out. He was badly off for carbolic acid; badly off for linen; badly off for almost everything. He had been badly off for food, but now the Bavarians supply rations. I could write you nearly a volume about Frank's hospital alone."

WHAT WAS NEEDED THEN, IS WANTED NOW.

If the war should continue it must be anticipated that further demands will be made on our Society, for the Germans have made a most enthusiastic effort to raise the required funds. They have expended them not only on their own people, but also on their French prisoners, between whom and the Germans I cannot see that any difference is made in the treatment, or in the administration of extra comforts. They lie side by side; they are cared for alike. Many individuals say that their means are nearly exhausted.

Mrs. Elphinstone says:—"None could form any notion of the greatness and extent of the benefits of the English Society, unless they could see what the wounded would have been without it; and the contrast is very apparent in every place, where they are collected before the Society takes it in hand. Once their agents appear on the scene, there are no more faces contorted with pain for want of opium; no more torturing operations performed without chloroform! no beds without blankets; no aching head without a pillow; and it is even more impossible to conceive the gratitude these poor fellows feel and express for all their

comforts than it is to imagine what their misery would have been without them."

AN INSISTENT DEMAND.

Much of the work which has been undertaken by men and women throughout Australasia for certain funds will be quickly over. Our troops leave soon, our patriotic fund has already reached a large total. It is different with the Red Cross work; not only is it urgently needed now, but the demand for garments, bandages, and other comforts will be steady and insistent as long as the war lasts. For this reason it would be well if those who wish to help set themselves to do so systematically, devoting a definite amount of time each day to the work. Local branches should be started in every town in the Commonwealth and New Zealand. The procedure is simple. Call a meeting of residents, elect a president, secretary, treasurer, and a small committee, and enrol members, then notify the Red Cross headquarters in each State, and arrange to get from it leaflets giving

definite particulars of the garments, etc., suitable to make or give. It is absolutely necessary to secure uniformity right through in order to facilitate prompt despatch, and still more to avoid confusion in distribution at the other end.

The Commonwealth headquarters are at Federal Government House, and the State organisations are presided over by the wives of the State Governors. The chief articles required are: Socks, handkerchiefs, pyjamas, under-flannels, towels, rolls of flannel and flannelette, calico, etc., sheets and pillow slips, old linen, bandages, pipes and tobacco, soap, brushes, combs, etc., etc. The leaflets issued by the Society give full directions about packing and the measurements for shirts and other things to be cut out and made. Headquarters will also send out cloth cut out ready to be sewn up, so that there will be nothing whatever to prevent those who have nothing to give, save their time, helping on the good work.



THE BALLROOM AT FEDERAL GOVERNMENT HOUSE, GIVEN UP ENTIRELY TO RED CROSS WORK.
The articles received are all sorted out on the long tables, and arranged for packing in cases to be shipped home by every steamer.

[Photograph specially taken for *Stead's Review*.]



THE KING'S HOUSE.

Two remarkable architectural gems in Brusse ls.



THE TOWN HALL.

THE COCKPIT OF EUROPE.

The plains of what is now called Belgium have always been the battle ground of warring tribes, striving potentates, and fighting nations, since the days of the Romans. Caesar found the Belgae spread from the Seine to the Rhine, and had many a stubborn fight with the warlike tribe. Soon after the Geruanæ forced them back from the Rhine into Belgium, a proceeding welcomed by the astute Romans, who strove ever to keep their subject races at loggerheads with each other.

In mediaeval times the tide of war ebbed and flowed across Brabant, Hainault, Flanders and Limburg, which were always more or less disturbed by strife and watered with blood.

The country which is now Belgium was ever a bone of contention between the European powers. From 843 to 1369, it formed part of France; then Burgundy had it till 1384; next it fell to Austria, until 1477, and then to Spain, until 1555. In 1580 it declared

its independence, but was speedily under the control of Austria once more. In 1713 it was included in the German Empire, of those days. Napoleon, of course, conquered it, but after his fall, it became part of the Netherlands. In 1831 it revolted from Dutch rule, and in 1839 Belgium was recognised as a sovereign independent State, and her neutrality was guaranteed by the Great Powers.

Most of the towns in the low countries have suffered siege, sack and pillage. Antwerp has had its full share. It was besieged for fourteen months, and finally taken by the Prince of Parma, in 1585. He was not a man who spared a city that resisted him! It was taken by Marlborough in 1706, by Marshal Saxe, in 1746, and was occupied by the French from 1794 to 1814. In 1870 a furious fight raged there between the Belgians and the Dutch, the latter cannonading the city with red-hot balls! It was bombarded and taken by the French in 1832.

Brussels, too, has been frequently captured and sacked, Marshal Villeroi in 1695 destroying no fewer than fourteen churches, and 10,000 houses by his bombardment. Liége has been accustomed, from the earliest times, to battle, murder and sudden death. In the fifteenth century it changed hands rapidly, and suffered severely in the process; Namur was, however, of greater value strategically, and paid for that in blood and terror many a time.

Amongst many other epoch-making battles, which have taken place in the "Cockpit" are Bouvines, Ramilles, Jemappes, Malplaquet and Waterloo. Bouvines, it is true, is now in France, but still in Flanders. A desperate battle took place here on July 27, 1214, chiefly notable because the French nation may be said to have come into being there. For in those days the numbers engaged were large—some 150,000 on both sides. Philip Augustus, of France, gained a signal victory, defeating the Germans, Flemish and English, under Otto IX., smashing up the coalition, and, as a result, welding his mixed subjects into a compact nation.

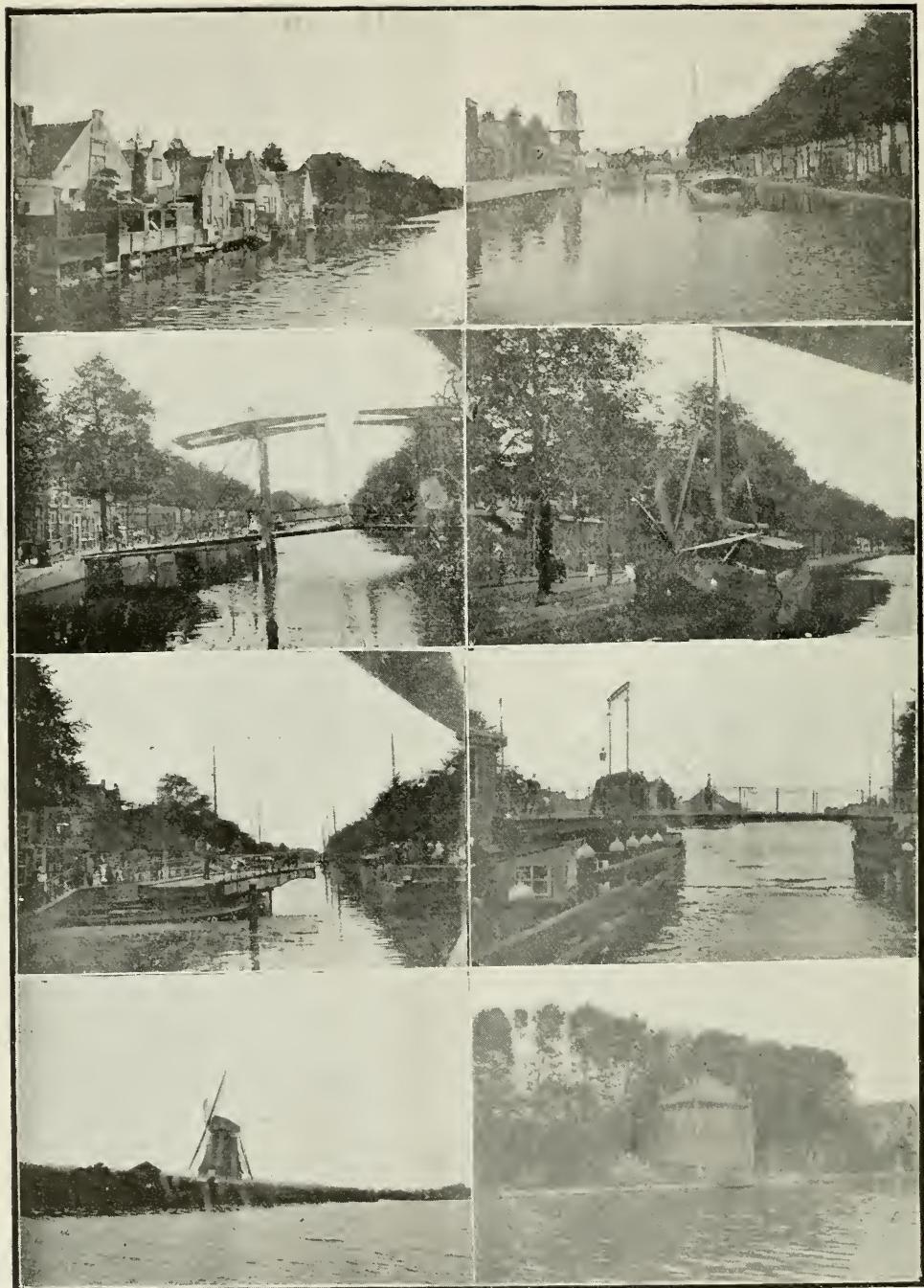
Ramilles is better known in England, for there the Duke of Marlborough won a great victory over the French, under Marshal Villeroi. The battle took place on Whit Sunday, May 23, 1706. Marlborough and Prince Eugene had 80,000 British, Dutch and Austrians with them, the French being about in equal numbers. They were crushingly defeated 6000 were captured, and 5000 killed and wounded. The Allies lost less than 3000. This victory ended the French domination over the Netherlands.

Malplaquet, just across the border, was the site of another of Marlborough's triumphs. The war with France on this occasion was over the Spanish succession. The Allies were besieging Mons, and again the English Field-Marshal had with him that splendid leader, Prince Eugene Marshal Villars, with a strong army of some 120,000

men, advanced to its relief, and, entrenching himself strongly at Malplaquet, waited the allied attack. This was delivered on September 11, 1709, and desperate fighting between the highly-trained and seasoned troops took place. The French were finally dislodged with a loss of 18,000 killed and wounded, the Allies suffering almost as much. It was rather a barren victory, although Mons capitulated soon afterwards.

The scene of the first of the many pitched battles gained by the young French Republic was at Jemappes. On November 6, 1792, a force of 40,000 soldiers of the Republic attacked 19,000 Austrians, who occupied a strongly entrenched position, and drove them out with a loss of some 5,000 on both sides. Dumouriez, the French leader, was a man of considerable military genius, but, being accused of monarchist tendencies, he was denounced as a traitor, and summoned to Paris. To save his head, he went over to the Austrians, and finally settled in England, where he died. Jemappes was chiefly important because it gave confidence to the young Republic, and prevented the Allies sweeping into France.

Brabant is dotted with villages, which live in English memory, because of the fighting which occurred about them, before the crowning mercy of Waterloo crushed Napoleon for ever. Ligny, Wavre, La Belle Aliance, Quatre Bras, to mention only a few. Most people are surprised to learn that of the 200,000 men engaged in the battle of Waterloo, only 24,000 were English, and most of these raw recruits, at that. It was fought on June 18, 1815, between Napoleon, with 72,000 men (246 guns) and Wellington, with 67,700 allies (156 guns). Later Blücher, with 50,000 Prussians (104 guns) arrived. The British lost 2000 killed, and 5000 wounded. The Allies lost altogether, including these, 4200 killed, 14,500 wounded, and 4230 missing. The French loss was over 40,000 in killed, wounded, and prisoners, but accurate details have never been obtained.



SNAPSHOTS IN HOLLAND WATERS. [Photos, by H. Stead.]

Catechism on the European Crisis.

(Continued.)

The "Catechism on the European Crisis," which we published last month in the *Review*, proved so popular that it was re-issued, as STEAD'S WAR BOOK No. 1. So many further questions were raised by the war that Mr. Stead prepared, and published, a second WAR BOOK. The Catechism which follows is largely a summary of the questions and answers which appeared there. As the Catechism last month was prepared before the outbreak of war, there were naturally many omissions which are made good in the following pages.

Is the Scheldt a Dutch or a Belgian river?

It is a Dutch river. This is a most important point if the Germans invest Antwerp, for it involves the neutrality of Holland. To invest Antwerp thoroughly the Germans will have to violate Dutch territory, to send reinforcements to Antwerp by the only available route, the Scheldt, the Allies will have to violate Dutch territorial waters. The Scheldt enters Holland eleven miles after it leaves Antwerp, and runs for fifty miles through Dutch territory to the sea. It is, therefore, Dutch territorial waters, and although it is a trade free river, its neutrality must be respected.

What does a trade free river mean?

A river on which no tolls are charged, and which is entirely free to the shipping of the world. Up to 1863 Holland had the right to, and did, levy a toll of 3s. per ton on all ships using the Scheldt to reach Antwerp. This absolutely throttled the port, and after many attempts a conference of twenty-one Powers and States, held at Brussels, was successful in arranging a treaty freeing the Scheldt. Belgium and the other interested Powers bought the toll right from Holland for £1,440,000, of which sum Belgium paid £480,000. Since then Antwerp has gone ahead by leaps and bounds. With its suburbs it has a population of about 360,000. Of these 16,000 are Dutch, and 10,000 Germans.

Is Antwerp fortified?

It is regarded as the strongest fortress in the world. Five years ago it was decided to spend £4,000,000 on remodelling the forts, and providing new armaments. If these alterations have been completed, the place must be im-

pregnable, and could only be starved out. For this there is not time. In addition to the great protecting forts, the town is encircled by ramparts, and completely surrounded by wide channels of water. Powerful forts cover the Scheldt, which is also called the Escaut, until it reaches the Dutch frontier.

Is Antwerp the greatest sea port in the whole world?

New York handled a couple of hundred thousand more tons last year, but for a long time Antwerp has been first. The recent immense growth in tonnage of the transatlantic liners has given New York her premier position. The figures are interesting:—

	Entered.	Cleared.
New York	13,763,765	13,549,138
Antwerp...	13,233,677	13,272,665
Hamburg	11,830,940	11,945,230
Hong Kong	11,138,527	11,142,117
Rotterdam	10,624,499	10,609,814
London	10,800,716	8,748,008
Monte Video ...	8,244,375	8,121,543
Marseilles	8,051,321	8,198,874
Singapore	7,737,785	7,717,691
Cardiff	6,230,944	9,168,115
Liverpool	7,253,016	7,446,873
Colombo	7,074,152	7,073,170
Rio de Janeiro...	5,212,713	5,198,784
Shanghai	4,183,528	4,155,152

(Full particulars of our exports to and imports from Belgium and other countries were given last month.)

How do Sydney and Melbourne compare with these?

The total shipping entered and cleared to and from Sydney was 6,136,332 tons; to and from Melbourne 4,859,545, as against Antwerp's total of 26,506,342.

How big is Belgium?

11,373 square miles. Not half the size of Tasmania. Holland is 12,628 square miles; Germany is 208,780

square miles, two-thirds the size of New South Wales. Prussia is far the largest and most important of the States composing the German Empire; it is 134,616 square miles, and has a population of over 40,000,000. The next largest is Bavaria, 29,000 square miles, and 7,000,000 inhabitants. France is almost exactly the same size as Germany, viz., 207,054. If she regains Alsace-Lorraine she will be larger than the Empire by 9000 square miles.

What are the distances in the European battlefield?

The total length of the German frontier from Holland to Switzerland is only 250 miles. That is to say, as far as Melbourne is from the South Australia border, or Sydney is from Albury. The distance from Liege to Brussels is 55 miles, not so far as from Melbourne to the Heads by train. The comparative smallness of the area involved is shown by the following distances:—

	Miles.
Berlin-Munich	315
Berlin-Paris	550
Berlin-Posen	150
Berlin-St. Petersburg	1150
Berlin-Warsaw	330
Brussels-Cologne	115
Dover-Brussels	140
Dover-Calais	21
London-Wilhelmshafen	400
Munich-Paris	430
Munich-St. Petersburg	1300
Munich-Venice	190
Munich-Vienna	230
Paris-Amiens	80
Paris-Beauvais	50
Paris-Belgian Frontier	115
Paris-German Frontier	170
Paris-Verdun	140
Posen-Warsaw	180
Strassburg-French Frontier	30
Vienna-Belgrade	310
Vistula-East Prussian Frontier	170

How are the ships of the various Powers distributed in the Pacific?

Last year the Great Powers had the following ships there:—

Great Britain Germany France

Armoured Cruisers

Minotaur	Gneisenau	Montcalm
Hampshire	Scharnhorst	Dupleix

Light Cruisers

Yarmouth	Leipzig	
Newcastle.	Emden	

Nurnberg

In addition, Great Britain has destroyers and submarines, five protected

cruisers in the East Indies, and odd gunboats in China and on the Canadian coast. Holland has four small cruisers and six destroyers, and two submarines, besides other small vessels in the East Indies. The Australian Navy consists of one battle-cruiser, three light cruisers, two submarines and destroyers. New Zealand has three small cruisers. The two German armoured cruisers are 11,420 tons, 23 knots, 4 to 6 in. armoured belt, and 2 in. deck. They are armed with eight 8.2 in. guns and six 5.9 in., and twenty 3.4 in., and fourteen smaller guns. The *Minotaur*, the largest British cruiser, is 14,600 tons, 23 knots, 6 in. armour belt, and has four 9.2 in. guns, ten 7.5 in., twenty-two smaller guns, and eight machine guns. The *Hampshire* is smaller, and is armed with 7.5 and 6 in. guns only. She is a 23-knotter also. The German light cruisers are speedy boats of the type of the *Amphion*, sunk in the North Sea. French armoured cruisers are 8000-ton boats, their main armament being 6.4 in. guns. There is a Russian Squadron based at Vladivostock, but it is not a powerful one. Great Britain has, besides her fast cruisers, two battleships in reserve, the *Triumph* (11,800 tons, 4 10 inch guns) at Hong Kong, and the *Swiftsure*, a sister ship, at Singapore.

What about the Japanese and American fleets?

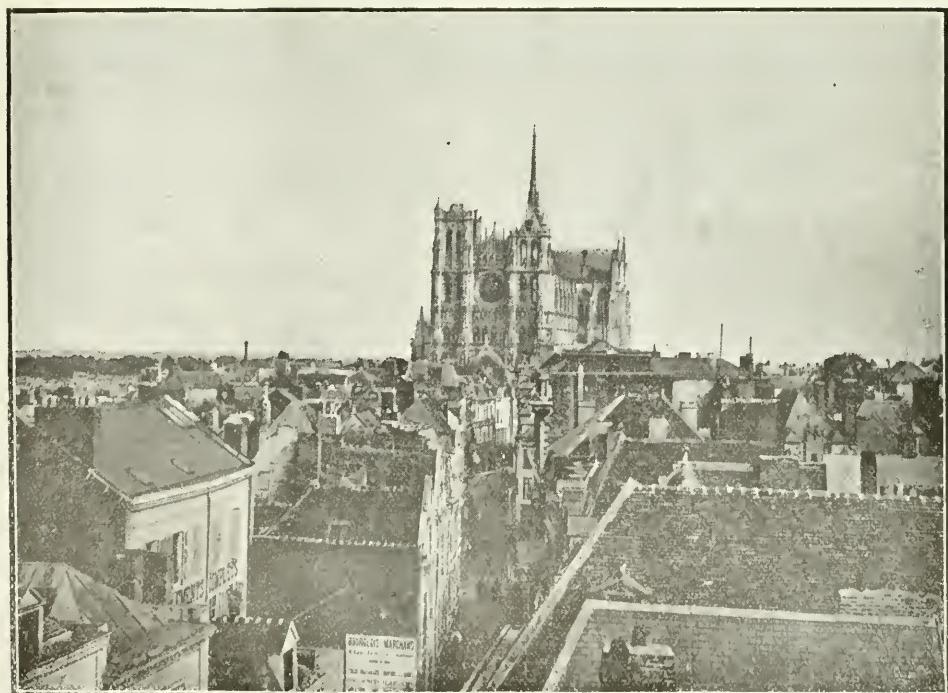
The Americans keep only a few ships on their West Coast, but since the completion of the Panama Canal their entire fleet can speedily enter the Pacific. They have 31 battleships (twelve being Dreadnoughts), 15 armoured cruisers, 14 protected cruisers, 45 destroyers, and 35 submarines. The Japanese have 15 battleships (four Dreadnoughts), 5 battle cruisers, 9 armoured cruisers, 16 protected cruisers, 60 destroyers, and 13 submarines. (Full particulars of the Fleets of the European Powers were given last month.)

What is the difference between a battleship, battle cruiser, armoured cruiser, protected cruiser, and unprotected cruiser?

A battleship is specially designed to give and take hard knocks in a fleet action. The *Orion*, one of the latest Superdreadnoughts, has a twelve-



THE FAMOUS CATHEDRAL AT ANTWERP
Peter Paul Rubens' Statue in Foreground.



AMIENS AND ITS HISTORIC CATHEDRAL.

inch steel belt, and ten 13.5 inch guns. Her speed is 23 knots, her tonnage 22,500, and she cost £1,900,000 to build. A battle cruiser combines the swiftness of a cruiser with the armament and protection of a Dreadnought. The *Lion*, the latest of this type, is 26,350 tons, has a speed of 34.7 knots, carries eight great 13.5 inch guns, and has an armour belt 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick; she cost no less than £2,100,000 to build. H.M.A.S. *Australia* is of this type, but much smaller, 18,000 tons, 25 knots, and eight 12 inch guns. An armoured cruiser is a vessel of high speed, with vertical and external armour. The latest of these are 14,600 tons, 23 knots, have an armour belt six inches thick and an armoured deck one inch thick; they are armed with four 9.2 in. guns, ten 7.5 in., 16 3 in., and machine guns. A protected cruiser has no armour excepting to protect the guns, but has an armoured deck. The *Melbourne* and *Sydney* are of this type, 5440 tons, 25 knots, nine 6 in. guns, four three-pounders, and four machine guns. The *Encounter* is 400 tons heavier, but can only do 21 knots. She is, however more heavily armed.

How many rounds can a great gun fire before wearing out?

Twelve-inch guns, and those of still larger size, can fire ninety full charges only. After that they are sent to the foundry, where they have a new core inserted, and can fire a further ninety rounds. By the time a gun has fired 180 rounds (in time of peace), it is practically obsolete. Only eight full charges are fired per annum, for practice half charges only are used. These only wear out the gun one-eighth as much as does a full charge, or even less.

What weight projectile do big guns fire?

Twelve-inch guns fire projectiles weighing about 850 lbs., 15 inch guns up to 2000 lbs., and the great 16.25 guns fire a missile weighing just about a ton!

Is it costly to fire these huge guns?

The *Iron Duke* has ten 13.5 inch guns, and sixteen six-inch guns. With all the guns in action she uses up powder and shot to the value of

£10,000 a minute. The weight of her broadside is 14,000 lbs., or more than six tons.

What is the penetrating power of a twelve-inch gun?

It will send a projectible through three feet of wrought iron at 5000 yards. The latest German 15 inch gun will perforate 42.5 inches of steel at its muzzle.

Will the armour of modern Dreadnoughts protect them?

All modern ships are perforable inside 8000 yards by 12-inch armour piercing shell. This means that projectiles from the *Australia*'s great guns would smash through the heaviest armour at present used, at a distance of four and a-half miles.

What is meant by caliber?

The term in which the size of a gun is expressed. It is the length of the gun divided by the diameter of the bore. Thus a 12 inch gun of 40 caliber is 40 feet long, a 15 inch gun of 40 caliber is 50 feet long. British guns larger than 12 inches are usually of 45 caliber; many of those smaller are of 50 caliber.

Is a knot the same as a mile?

No; it is 800 feet more; that is to say, six knots are about seven miles, so that a 36-knot boat actually covers 42 miles in an hour.

Can Dreadnoughts enter the Baltic?

The British Dreadnoughts have too-great a draught to manœuvre there, as the sea is very shallow. By keeping to the narrow channels our Dreadnoughts could reach St. Petersburg, but with the buoys removed, the Baltic would be a terribly dangerous place to enter, let alone fight Dreadnoughts in.

How long is the Kiel Canal?

Sixty-one miles, a few miles longer than that of Panama. The Suez Canal is almost 100 miles long, and cost £14,000,000 to build. The shares the British Government purchased in 1875 for £4,000,000 are now worth about £40,000,000. The Suez Canal was declared neutral in 1887, and can be used by warships of any belligerent. The Panama Canal, fifty miles long, cost £80,000,000.

What was the cost of the recent reconstruction of the Kiel Canal?

The proper name of the canal is the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal. Its original cost was £7,800,000. The reconstruction cost £11,000,000. It was 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep, but has now been deepened and widened so that it can take the greatest Dreadnought afloat. The sluices at the Baltic end are 1072 feet long, and 146 feet wide, and are the largest in the world.

What battleships has Greece?

During the last war, her armoured cruiser *Giorgio Averoff*, the gift of the patriotic millionaire of that name, enabled her to control the Aegean; 9956 tons, she has four 9.2 in. guns, eight 7.5, and twenty-four quick-firers. Greece has just purchased two six-year-old battleships from the United States—the *Idaho* and *Mississippi*, of 14,000 tons, four 12 in. guns, eight 8 in., eight 7 in., and forty quick-firers.

How was it possible for Great Britain, a belligerent Power, to obtain warships from Turkey, a neutral?

Ships building in British shipyards are liable to purchase by the Admiralty, there being a provision in the agreement to that effect. Article 6 of the neutrality in Naval War Convention states definitely that "the supply on any ground whatever either directly or indirectly by a neutral power to a belligerent power of ships of war or munitions of war of any kind is forbidden."

What ships has Great Britain actually purchased?

Presumably the Dreadnoughts *Rio de Janeiro*, which Turkey purchased from Brazil quite recently, and the *Reshad-i-Hamiss*. Both these battleships are ready for service, or could quickly be made so. The former is one of the most powerful ships afloat; the latter smaller, 23,000 tons, with fewer guns, although her biggest are larger than those of the *Rio de Janeiro*, which has sixteen 12 inch.

Are there other battleships building in England for foreign Powers?

Two huge Chilean Dreadnoughts are building at Newcastle. One is to be ready this December, the other next March. A protected cruiser is building

for Siam, destroyers for Brazil and Chili. Germany is building several submarines for the smaller powers, which she will no doubt purchase for her own use; she is also building a few destroyers.

What is the use of censoring news here so far from the scene of operations?

The answer to that is "wireless." Before Marconi perfected telegraphing without wires, the authorities could control every avenue of communication between Australia and the rest of the world. To-day it is quite possible for news to be sent from here by a wireless plant erected far from village or city. Wireless messages, between ships can be picked up, and the news transmitted to Germany by wireless.

How then are the naval instructions not picked up by the enemy?

They are of course all sent in code. If this is discovered they can be read and the information used.

What possessions has Germany in the Pacific?

She has, or rather had at the outbreak of war, German New Guinea, which consists of Kaiser Wilhelm Land, 70,000 square miles, situated on the Island of New Guinea, immediately north of Papua; the Bismarck Archipelago, including Neu Pommern (the headquarters of the Governor), the Caroline Islands, the Pelew Islands, the Marianne Islands, the Solomon Islands, the Marshall Islands. Some acquired in 1885, others purchased from Spain in 1899. The native population is some 360,000; there are 1240 whites, of whom 790 are German. In Samoa Germany has two islands ceded her by Britain as compensation, it is generally understood for the Kaiser's refusal to join France and Russia in an anti-British league during the Boer war. These islands, Savaii and Upolu, have an area of 1000 square miles; 37,000 natives live there, and 470 whites (270 Germans). Kia-Chau in China was seized by the Germans in 1897, but was leased from China for 99 years in 1899, about the time that Britain leased Wei-hai-wei on the same peninsula. Its area is about 200 square miles; 33,000 Chinese live there, and 1848 Germans, including



SOME OF OUR ALLIES.
Servian reservists going to join the colours.



A RUN ON THE SAVINGS BANK, IN BERLIN.
A scene just before the outbreak of war.

[Topical.]

the garrison of marines. It has a fine harbour.

What other possessions has Germany?

Togo, in Upper Guinea, between the British Gold Coast on the west and the French Dahoméy on the east. It is 33,700 square miles, and 300 Germans live there. The Cameroons, between British Nigeria and French Congo, area 191,130 square miles; 1130 Germans live there. German South-West Africa lies between Portuguese West Africa and Cape Colony. Area, 322,450 square miles; 12,135 Germans live there. German East Africa, 384,180 square miles, lies between British East Africa and Portuguese East Africa; has a population of 7,500,000 native and 3580 Germans. All the German colonial possessions together have a total area of 1,000,000 square miles, and a population of 14,000,000. Of the whites, some 25,000 in all, 20,750 are Germans. This does not include the military forces, which number about 4500 Germans and 3825 natives.

Are these colonies a good investment?

They will no doubt be in time. At present they cost Germany in administration and special grants about £3,000,000 annually. Many Germans regard German colonial expansion in these tropical lands as mere waste of money. It is actually costing about £150 each per annum for every German living in these colonies.

What is meant by continuous voyage?

If the ultimate destination of the goods, though shipped to a neutral port, is enemy's territory, this is regarded as a continuous voyage, and the goods may be treated as if shipped direct to the enemy's territory.

Who is to determine whether supplies are for a neutral or actually for the enemy?

The Prize Court. The Institute of International law states that "Destination to the enemy is presumed when the shipment is to a neutral port if it is unquestionably proved by the facts that the neutral port was only a stage *en route* to the enemy." The same statement is made in the Declaration of London. In actual practice, of course, warships will arrest vessels on suspicion

and leave the Prize Court to settle things afterwards.

Has a case of arrest of goods on the ground of continuous voyage ever been made?

There has been only one case recorded when a Prize Court condemned a vessel on this ground. It was during the war between Italy and Abyssinia. A Dutch ship was seized, although bound for a French colonial port, as she had on board rifles which had long gone out of use in Europe, and which were clearly destined for King Menelik of Abyssinia.

Can foodstuffs consigned to neutrals be taken by the warships of fighting powers?

Certainly not, unless it can be proved that these supplies are really destined for a belligerent, and are merely passing through the neutral country. Holland in this war is certain to have great trouble over this. She could become a conduit pipe for supplying Germany, and the Allied Powers will insist that she prevents this, however difficult it may be.

What is a prize court?

It is a Court appointed by the King as Admiral of the Fleet, in the Dominions by the Governors as Vice-Admirals, "to take cognisance of and judicially proceed upon all manner of captures, recaptures, prizes, vessels and goods and all other matters of prize falling within its jurisdiction." The judges appointed are always those of high standing, and they usually have Admiralty experience.

Are the decisions of the prize court final?

Great Britain allows appeals from her national prize courts to the Privy Council. The signatories to the London Declaration allow appeal to an international Prize Court established by the last Hague Conference. This International Court is composed of fifteen members. The eight Great Powers (including Japan) appoint one member each, the remaining seven are appointed by the smaller Powers.

What happens ultimately to the German merchantmen that England has captured?

That is decided by the prize courts. There is a general understanding that

those vessels captured in port on the declaration of war and those taken at sea, who were not aware that a state of war existed, are merely detained, not condemned. At the end of the war they are returned to their owners. It depends, however, upon the treatment accorded by the enemy to our ships in similar cases.

To whom do the prizes belong?

Those captured during war time belong to the nation that captured them. The general custom has been for the crew of the vessel which captures a ship to receive a share of the prize money, but that, too, is a matter for the Prize Court.

Do the ships taken here belong to Australia or Great Britain?

It is generally understood that they belong to Great Britain, but a case of a Dominion which captures ships with its own fleet has never been known before. It is a matter which will no doubt be decided without reference to the Prize Court.

What is the fate of a non-combatant who is found with arms in his hands?

The rules of war allow of his being shot without mercy. His position is a little better now than it was before the Hague Conference of 1907. It was agreed there that if he carries arms openly and respects the laws and customs of war, he must be regarded as a belligerent. He must, however, wear some sort of a uniform or a badge, which can be recognised at a distance, and which cannot be removed at will. This was urged by England and France, who desired to legalise the position of volunteers and irregulars, who previously were only entitled to be regarded as belligerents by the courtesy of their foe.

But if a civilian, to defend his home or his wife's honour takes up a rifle, would he be shot if captured?

Certainly he would.

But is that not murder?

War, says General Sherman, is hell. But the shooting of civilians who resort to arms is absolutely necessary for the protection of all non-combatants. If a civilian who fought were treated as a soldier no troops would venture to

enter a village or town until they had killed or driven out everyone in it. The troops alone must carry on war; the rest of the nation must remain at peace.

Who were the Franc-Tireurs?

They were irregular bands of Frenchmen who waged a guerilla warfare against the German invaders in 1871. The Germans did not recognise them as belligerents unless they wore a uniform. When caught without they were summarily shot. The shooting of non-combatants who have taken up arms gives rise to the wildest stories of cold-blooded murder in all wars, but it is a very necessary provision to protect, in the long run, all the civilian population of an invaded country. War is hell!

What is a spy?

A spy is officially described as one who, "acting clandestinely, obtains, or seeks to obtain, information in the zone of operations of a belligerent with the intention of communicating it to the hostile party." This means that a soldier, not in disguise, who penetrates into the zone of the operations of the hostile army for information is not a spy so long as he is in his uniform. If he has not got it on he is so regarded. Civilians are of course regarded as spies if found seeking or carrying information. Thus a boy or a woman who gives information about the movements of hostile troops is a spy, and may be treated as such.

What is a spy's fate?

He must first be tried by a court-martial—a very rapid affair usually. If found guilty he or she is probably shot at once.

Are the rules of war likely to be respected?

Little confidence should be placed in the faithful carrying out of the regulations in a very fierce struggle, but there are certain fundamental principles which are always respected. Public opinion serves as a restraint upon the commission of atrocities amongst civilised peoples. When public opinion cannot be felt, even the most civilised troops relapse into a state of barbarism. That was shown during the Chinese expedition at the time of the Boxer rising, when atrocities were committed, by the

international troops, which appalled British correspondents and officers. We know now that the fearful charges of atrocities made against the Balkan soldiers were only too true. Fortunately, in the western theatre of war all the nations engaged will in the main respect the rules of war.

Does the 162,000 mentioned in the August number as the professional army of Great Britain include the troops in India?

No; the British soldiers in India number 77,300, which brings the total establishment up to 244,000.

How are the British forces distributed at normal times?

127,400 in the United Kingdom; 77,300 in India; 12,500 in Ceylon and China; 11,850 in South Africa; 6500 in Egypt and Cyprus; 7500 in Malta; 4120 in Gibraltar; and 6600 variously scattered *en route* to stations and in the Crown Colonies.

What troops has Great Britain in India?

Besides the British regiments, there are 162,000 native troops, 28,500 military police, 96,400 volunteers, reserves, etc.

What are the Territorials?

The "Terriers," as they are called, took the place of the old Volunteers. Members of this force must enlist for three years, and during that time are liable to be called upon for active service at home. Like our citizen army, they may only be sent abroad if they volunteer.

Are the "Terriers" well trained?

They are probably better trained than our citizen forces, because not only have they more compulsory drills, but, unlike our men, the majority of them put in fifteen days instead of eight in camp. In addition they have the advantage of army sergeants and other retired military men to drill them. They have, too, the immense advantage of carrying out manœuvres in conjunction with regular troops.

How many of them are there?

In April, 1913, there were 263,000. That is 50,000 less than establishment. Recruiting was, however, brisk during 1913, and this deficiency was considerably reduced.

Are the "Terriers" fit for war?

Many critics, who object to the force because it is raised on a voluntary instead of a compulsory basis, state that it could not be used at all for six months. Sir Ian Hamilton, comparing them with our citizen soldiers, states that they could be efficient in far less time than that.

What then is Great Britain's total effective force?

596,000, made up as follows:—Regiments in United Kingdom, 127,400; Army reserves, 142,000; special reserves, 61,000; Territorials, 263,000; and 3000 more or less unattached. If, however, the British troops in India and oversea be included, and also the Indian army, Great Britain has a total strength of just under a million men.

What weapons did the soldiers use during recent wars?

At Waterloo the British used the old Brown Bess flint firelock; at the Crimea they had the same gun converted to use caps. Mauser rifles are now most generally used; in fact, the French Army is the only one which has stuck to the far less convenient tube magazine. The French Lebel magazine rifle is an excellent weapon, but the mechanism is more liable to get out of order than that of the more simple Mauser. The Mannlicher rifle is used by the Austrians, the Italians, the Greeks, the Bulgarians and the Dutch. The Mauser is used by the Germans, the Belgians, the Spanish, the Portuguese and the Turks. The British use the Lee-Enfield, the Russians the Nagant, the Americans the Winchester, the original repeating rifle.

When was a breechloading rifle used for the first time in war?

In the Austro-Prussian War of 1866, the Prussians used what was called a Zundnadel Gewehr. They used the same gun in the Franco-German War of 1870-71, but the French had a better weapon the chassepot. The German artillery was, however, better than the French, but the latter had the Mitrailleuse, the forerunner of all quick-firing guns of the Maxim type.

Are many weapons manufactured at Liege?

There are nearly 200 factories of arms there. Some 40,000 of the inhabitants

are engaged in the work. As, however, they all work at their own homes on piecework, the Germans will not get any benefit from the factories unless the workmen agree to carry on their trade.

What is it reckoned the present war is costing?

Various estimates have been made. It is reckoned roughly that it costs at least 6s. a day per man, apart altogether from war material. There will be probably some 5,000,000 soldiers under arms, not to mention neutrals, who have to prepare for eventualities. Probably keep alone would amount to £2,000,000 per day. If we take into account the immense expenditure of ammunition, the inevitable destruction of property, and the loss due to the standstill of business, it would be difficult to keep the figure below £10,000,000 per day. If that figure be accurate the war will already have cost over £150,000,000. If it lasts the eighteen months anticipated by Lord Kitchener, the total cost would be not less than £5,470,000,000, a total equal to the whole amount of Europe's old war debts. These colossal figures indicate that the war must come to an end soon, otherwise Europe will be bankrupt, and totally ruined.

What is the gravest defect of the German Army?

Its rigidity. The soldiers have been

taught to do everything by rule, every emergency has been provided for with absolute precision, but when an unforeseen one comes along the German soldier is lost. Initiative, the great necessity in modern war, has been stamped out of him by the methods of the unteroffizier. Another weakness is that this unteroffizier is the backbone of the cast-iron army. He is the connecting link between officers and men. The former hardly know the latter at all. Therein they differ greatly from the French, who have probably been through the mill, and lived at the same barracks as those they command. The Germans showed that they could not adapt themselves to new conditions when they struggled for years to defeat the Herreros in German West Africa. It was only when these natives were driven across the border and were rounded up by the Cape Mounted Police that the war ended.

Have all the railways in Europe the same gauge?

All have the standard 4 ft. 8½ inches gauge except Russia. There the gauge is no less than 5 ft. 6 inches (three inches wider than the Victorian). There are very few railways running to the Russo-German frontier, which makes a rapid concentration of Russian troops there impossible. Once they cross the frontier the Russian rolling stock is useless to assist the invaders.



SERVIA'S HISTORIC CAPITAL—BELGRADE ON THE DANUBE.

[Topical.]

Why Archduke Francis Was Assassinated.



A most lucid account of the inwardness of the situation which led up to the tragic death of the heir to the Austrian throne is given by Stephen Brozovic, in *Everybody's Magazine*. He is the editor of the *Narodni List*, an important paper published in Prague. His view of the situation is particularly valuable, because the Bohemians sympathise strongly with the Servians. He shows that the Archduke was killed because he intended to make the Dual a Triple Empire, and that would have utterly extinguished the Servians' ambition for a great Servia.

First of all, it must be understood that this assassination, on the 28th of June, had nothing in common with the Balkan question, in its larger aspects, nor with the Albanian question, and will not probably have anything to do with the eventual solution of them. This happened in Bosnia, the most southerly province of Austria-Hungary, hemmed in between Dalmatia on the Adriatic side, and Servia, to the east-

ward. It is exclusively a Servian question.

The hatching of the plot may be traced back to that day, in 1908, when Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. It was already ripe, in 1913, when Austrian shrewd diplomacy in the European concert of nations succeeded in forbidding Servia to extend its boundaries westward to the Adriatic, thus compelling that circumscribed country to trade with the outside world through Austrian ports. The most active and successful factor in this move in Balkan politics was the assassinated Prince Francis Ferdinand, and his success in forbidding Servia access to the sea was probably the initial cause of his terrible death.

The young Prince was killed by a subject of his own government, not a Servian from Servia, but a Servian from Bosnia, a country taken from the Turks by Austria in 1878, and annexed thirty years later. Even after the Austrian occupation of 1878, the Servians of Bosnia and Herzegovina were anxious to be united with the Servian kingdom. Already, in 1900, the Servian papers were laying much stress on the fact that those two countries were once a part of Servia, and were insisting that they would some day again be annexed. The same thought at this time was taking deep root among the Servian residents under the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, and the fire was steadily fanned by agitators coming over the border from Servia.

Mr. Brozovic then refers to the assassination of the Servian King Alexander and Queen Draga, slain because they were deemed too friendly towards Austria. King Peter, who followed, approved the Servian efforts in Bosnia. In 1908 the annexation of this province and Herzegovina by Austria nullified the work of the agitators, and brought the two countries to the verge of war. The Serbs turned to their natural ally, Russia, for help, but having just come through the disastrous

struggle with Japan, the Russians could do nothing, and Servia had to submit.

The Servians in Bosnia had been so far inspired by the agitators to the demand that Bosnia and Herzegovina should be a part of Servia, that they were already prognosticating a larger Servia, which, united with Bulgaria, should occupy the entire Balkan peninsula, from the Aegean Sea to the Adriatic, with the exception of Greece.

To this Servian dream of wider nationality Crown Prince Francis Ferdinand was the visible stumbling-block. It was his ambition to unite all the Slavic provinces of Austria, the south-easterly region along the Adriatic, and reform Austria-Hungary from a dual into a triad government—that is, the third part of the monarchy should comprise Croatia, Slavonia, Dalmatia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Istria, and Krain, as an equal factor with Hungary and Austria, under the same crown. Actuated by this dream of his own, the assassinated Crown Prince used all his influence to form the new Kingdom of Albania, in order to close the doors of the Adriatic Sea to the Servians for ever.

Behind the young murderer, Gabre Princip, who is only eighteen years old, and behind the bomb-thrower, Gabrilovich, who attempted the assassination an hour earlier, stood an entire organisation, the aim of which was to destroy this Man of the Iron Hand, heir to the throne, and enemy of the propaganda of the Servian Nationalists. The headquarters of this organisation is in Servia, but it works through its agitators, chiefly in the Austro-Hungarian provinces.

Mr. Brozovic is, of course, writing before the outbreak of the European war. He doubts very much whether Bosnia and Herzegovina would welcome absorption into Servia. There are, he says, 750,000 members of the Orthodox Greek faith calling themselves of Servian nationality in the provinces; of these, barely one-third would like to belong to Servia. Of the other dwellers in Bosnia and Herzegovina (450,000 Croatian Catholics and 600,000 Moslems) he does not believe there is one

favourable to Servia. He concludes by saying that:—

"The assassination at Sarajevo will probably teach the Austrian diplomats to hurry with their internal re-organisation, and change the present dual government into the triangular form, giving the Slavs in Austria the same rights as those now enjoyed by the Hungarians. This accomplished, the Balkan question will take care of itself."

THE TRUE TRIALISM.

Writing in the *Contemporary Review*, Mr. R. W. Seton-Watson scorns this idea about the superseding of Dualism by Trialism, through the creation of a Southern Slav kingdom under the Hapsburg sceptre. An entirely unfounded rumour he calls it. The Archduke had no sympathy for a scheme which would merely have accentuated existing evils, but it was his firm belief that a form could be found which would satisfy Southern Slav aspirations without sacrificing the unity of the State.

The true Trialism consists in a compromise between Centralism and Federalism, by which the various races—historic and "un-historic," as the smaller ones are sometimes called—would attain full scope for national development, while a central parliament, replacing the phantom Delegations, would give expression to a strong executive for joint affairs, and render possible the unification of foreign policy.

Francis Ferdinand was fully alive to the dangers which threatened the monarchy from the growth of Pan-Serb tendencies. The high value which he placed upon the Croats was due partly to personal sympathy based upon the traditional Croat loyalty to the House of Hapsburg, partly to a perception of their strategic importance as a Balkan outpost, as a bulwark of Catholicism and as the best naval recruiting ground.

Hence to the Pan-Serb idea emanating from Belgrade he sought to oppose the idea of Serbo-Croat unity within the Monarchy, believing that a solution of the internal problem would weaken Servian Irredentism, and remove the most fertile cause of friction between the Monarchy and Servia.

The Archduke tried to terminate the infamous Cuvaj regime in Croatia, but lacked the political power to enforce his views. Naturally he was obliged to exercise his influence in ways which did not appeal to the gallery, and

it would be mere folly to ignore the fact that to every Servian of the Kingdom, Francis Ferdinand seemed an irreconcilable enemy, the leader of the war party and the personification of Austrian Imperialism in a form which seemed to threaten Servia's very existence.

The responsible politicians of Croatia, Dalmatia and Bosnia were, it is true, aware of the Archduke's friendly intentions towards them, and it was this knowledge which encouraged them in the fatal error of abandoning their radical attitude, in the hope of a golden age under the future Emperor. They thus lost all hold upon the rising generation, which at an age when English boys are absorbed in football and cricket, plunged into political and revolutionary speculation. The inevitable result was that a number of raw, unbalanced youths were seduced into the "Propaganda of the deed"; and, incapable of distinguishing between the hostile policy pursued by Austria-Hungary towards the Southern Slavs and that policy's foremost opponent in the Monarchy, two of them succeeded in removing the man upon whom the best hopes of their race rested.

AN IRREPARABLE LOSS?

Mr. Seton-Watson says that many consider that the death of the Archduke is likely to still further increase the political stagnation and pessimism which has been so marked a characteristic of Austria in recent years.

For the moment the loss of Francis Ferdinand seems irreparable, but to concede this would be the worst insult to the dead man's memory; for it would mean that Austria's hope of regeneration rested upon a single life. That this is a thousand times untrue can best be proved if those who enjoyed the confidence of Francis Ferdinand form an intellectual bodyguard round the new Heir Apparent, Archduke Charles Francis Joseph. The man may perish, but the idea cannot die. The mission of the Hapsburgs in Europe is more obvious than ever, and if the young Archduke be willing to take up his uncle's legacy, all honest men of every creed, race and party, at home or abroad, must stand by him, and endeavour in their own way to help him prove his mettle. Hitherto he has given no indication of signal ability, but it is only now that his opportunity has come. He has an absolutely clean record, enjoys great popularity, and has a charming consort worthy of him. Nature has taught him to be "suaviter in modo," the hard school of politics must now train him to be "fortiter in re." The task is one of immense difficulty, but it is an occasion to bring out all that is noblest in a man; and from the bottom of our hearts we wish him the high resolve, the indomitable courage, the calm perseverance and willingness to learn which alone can bring success.

A STRONG MAN.

The picture Mr. Seton-Watson draws of the personal life of the Archduke is a deeply interesting one. He shows how his very person had become a programme, and a watchword for that band of idealists who amid the growing pessimism and stagnation of recent years proudly affirmed their belief in the regeneration and future greatness of the Dual Monarchy. He was emphatically a strong man who knew his own mind—the strong man of the Monarchy—full of high ideals and possessed of the necessary energy to translate them into action. As was well said by a leading Croatian newspaper on the morrow of the tragedy, the murderers can be executed, but no criminal code can assign due punishment for the shattered hopes and expectations of whole nations.

THE BALKAN PANDORA-BOX.

Theodor von Sosnosky, writing in the same magazine on the Balkan policy of the Hapsburg Empire, opens with a statement almost prophetic of the present terrible struggle, although of course he wrote before the Austro-Servian crisis had set Europe in a blaze.

The shocking tragedy enacted at Serajevo on the 28th June has drawn the attention of the whole world more closely to the Balkan policy of the Hapsburg Empire than has been the case since the annexation crisis. Austria-Hungary stands in the foreground of the Balkan events, and it is these that will determine the fate of the Monarchy. The decisive battles will probably not be fought in the Balkan peninsula, but very far away; nevertheless, the occasion for the coming great struggle, in which neither the monarchy nor Europe will be spared, will be furnished by the Balkans, the Pandora-box that has always brought misfortune to Europe. The assassination of the heir to the Austrian throne forms in any case a landmark. For the Monarchy, the future alone will show whether it is a direction-post or a gravestone.

WHEN AUSTRIA BREAKS UP.

Writing in the *Fortnightly* on the late Archduke and the possible results which will follow his death, Mr. J. Ellis

Barker certainly inclines to the belief that Francis Ferdinand would have established a Triple Empire. He reviews, informatively, the recent policy of Austria in the Balkans, but did not consider that war was likely for some time at any rate. He points out how Bulgaria was deceived by Austria and tempted to attack her allies, and how Austria left her in the lurch. The Dual Empire is thus hated by all the Balkan States, and Roumania is no friend of the Hapsburg dynasty. Mr. Barker thus summarises the probable partition of the Empire when the inevitable break-up comes.

While a defeat may be fatal to Austria-Hungary, a victorious war would be of little benefit to her. A successful war, if ever so glorious, would not reconcile her Slavs to their lot, nor would it improve the relations between Austria and Hungary. A victorious campaign would not satisfy the country unless it would be waged against a common enemy. Unfortunately, a war against Russia, or against the Balkan Slavs, which is the most probable war, would be resented by the Austrian Slavs, while a war with Germany would be resented by the Austro-Germans.

A DESPERATE POSITION.

A war with the Balkan States or with Russia would not only estrange the Austrian Slavs, but it would yield no material benefit to Austria-Hungary, for that country cannot afford to have more Slavs within her frontiers than there are already. The Dual Monarchy could, therefore, not find compensation for the expenditure such a war would entail by territorial aggrandisement.

The position of the Dual Monarchy is a desperate one. The country is torn by internal dissensions, by a veritable "bellum omnium contra omnes." It cannot continue to live in its present condition, and, apparently, it cannot be reformed. It seems, therefore, that Austria-Hungary is destined to break up, that the Dual Monarchy, like European Turkey, will be dissolved into its component parts. After all, that is only to be expected. Austria-Hungary is a mediaeval anachronism in a modern world.

GERMANY WOULD GET THE BEST.

Austria-Hungary is in the unfortunate position that all her neighbours, including even her friends and allies, will profit by the dissolution of the Monarchy.

In such an event Russia would, on racial grounds, claim the Eastern districts of

Austria-Hungary, peopled by Ruthenians; Roumania would desire to incorporate the provinces peopled by three million Roumanians which adjoin her border; the Italians would demand the districts inhabited by nearly 1,000,000 inhabitants across her frontier, and Germany would greatly profit by bringing the ten million Austrian Germans under the German flag. Bismarck repeatedly stated that he did not desire the acquisition of German Austria, because German Austria is divided from the German Empire by Bohemia, with 4,000,000 Czechs. He stated that Germany had already more than enough trouble with her three million Poles, and that she did not wish to add to the number of her Slavonic citizens.

Bismarck exaggerated, for good reasons, the difficulties, and understated the advantages, of such a reunion. German Austria and Bohemia possess the most fruitful lands and the most valuable mines in the Dual Monarchy. Austria's most important manufacturing industries are to be found in the German districts and in Bohemia. Last, but not least, the German settlers chose the most valuable strategical positions in Austria, the most useful locations for commerce and trade, on the Danube and along the other great natural highways of the country. By far the most valuable and the most desirable portions of Austria-Hungary are peopled by Austro-Germans and by the Czechs of Bohemia. Besides, the ten million Austro-Germans would, of course, be more than able to hold in check the four million Czechs. The ideal of a German Empire stretching from Hamburg to Trieste, from the North Sea to the Adriatic, may be realised in the lifetime of the present generation.

AUSTRIA AND ITALY.

Mr. Barker discusses the rivalry between Italy and Austria, and quotes a significant passage from a book recently published by the German Navy League.

During several years the hope has been expressed that the quickly growing Austrian and Italian Fleets, acting in unison, might by their action in the Mediterranean ease Germany's position in the North Sea. The possibility of such support is, of course, not excluded. However, so far there are not sufficiently strong political foundations for that hope. Austria-Hungary arms at sea, as she has clearly stated, in order to be able to meet the Italian Fleet, and Italy, increases her navy for the express purpose of not allowing Austria-Hungary to overtake her. In both countries there is a strong party which considers the other country as the enemy and urges for war.

K. OF K.



Writing, of course, before the tragic happenings of August, T. H. Manners Howe gives a very interesting study of Earl Kitchener, in the *Pall Mall Magazine*. He regards him as the greatest Englishman of his era, and says no more fitting words could be found to describe him than those said of Lord Chatham, that there was something finer in the man than anything he said.

IN THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

It is rather surprising to learn that Kitchener fought in a French army against the Germans. He was a cadet at Woolwich, in 1871, and he and his father were staying in Brittany during vacation. He promptly offered his services to the French, and fought under the able General Chanzy, in the operations round Le Mans.

Irishmen like to claim Lord Kitchener as a countryman of theirs on the ground that he was born at Gunborough Villa, County Kerry, on June 24th, 1850. But although his father, Colonel Henry Horatio Kitchener, had migrated to Ireland from Leicestershire two years before the birth of his son Herbert, the family is East Anglican, and in the

little Suffolk village of Lakenheath there are records of the Kitchens going back two hundred years, when Thomas Kitchener and his wife Abigail came thither from Hampshire in the reign of the third William.

As a boy he seems to have impressed observers in different ways. An old friend of the family describes him as a "manly, active and spirited little fellow, who could not keep quiet, and consequently, like all boys of his kind, used to get into scrapes, but had great luck in getting out of them." Another says "he was a smart, intelligent, growing-up lad, promising to be a smart young fellow"; while a third remembers him as "quiet and taciturn, good at books, but taking a bad place in outdoor games and gymnastics." To a fourth he was "a shy, self-contained boy, who early showed a talent for figures."

AN EARLY INDISCIPLINE.

He was in Alexandria on the eve of the famous bombardment, and, knowing that a telegram recalling him to Cyprus was imminent, he arranged with a friendly pressman to delay its reaching his hands until the weekly boat to Cyprus had gone.

Lieutenant Kitchener, with his, at that time, unrivalled knowledge of the natives and their language, was, of course, a welcome find for any commander like Lord Wolseley, committed to operations in a comparatively unknown country. Accordingly his services were retained, and from that moment his future was assured.

The call of the desert came to him, and he could not resist it. For two years he wandered, dressed as an Arab, from Cairo to Abu Hamed, from Berber to the Red Sea. He lived the life of the native for all those months, and absorbed that vast store of information and knowledge which, after fifteen long years, was to materialise in the regeneration of the Soudan.

Genial, affable, kindly, and fond of a joke at ordinary times, when hard work or fighting is afoot he freezes into uncompromising severity. Hence the constant triumph of his subordinates over apparently insuperable difficulties. The following story af-

fords an interesting comparison between K.'s way and that of other commanders. It occurred in South Africa.

Lord Roberts, requiring some important work to be carried out, sent for a senior officer, and gave him his instructions. "How soon do you think you can put it through?" inquired the kindly old chief, adding, "I know you'll do the best you can." "I'll try to do it in a fortnight, sir," was the reply. "Well, I know you'll do your best," smiled Lord Roberts, as he bade the other good-bye.

The visitor had no sooner got outside than he ran up against Lord Kitchener. "Well?" rapped out K. abruptly. "Oh, I've just seen the chief," explained the officer, referring to the business in hand. "How soon will you get it done?" was the quick response. "Well, I told him I would try and do it in a fortnight." "Now, look here, Colonel," replied K., "unless this is put through within a week we shall have to consider your return home." The work was done.

HIS CHOICE OF TOOLS.

No man was ever so independent of his entourage. His office stationery consisted of a bundle of telegraph forms in his helmet, and a pencil in his pocket.

THE GERMAN MILITARY BUBBLE.

A most timely, and, let us hope, prophetic, article on the German army, appears in the *London Magazine*, written by a man, signing himself "En Avant," who is evidently familiar with the German and other Continental armies. He considers that the Kaiser's army is by no means the invincible machine we have all been led to believe. He explains why, and his explanation has now to stand the test of actual happenings. His forecasts of the way in which the Germans will attack us have proved true, but, alas, his contention that such methods cannot possibly succeed against modern rifles and artillery has been demonstrated false.

I admit that on paper the German Army is not only the greatest, but the most perfectly organised army in the world, but battles are not won by flourishing sheaves of statistics in the enemy's face, nor is there any sound criterion by which the worth of an army for war can be judged in time of peace.

There are a hundred and one qualities which are supposed theoretically to make for efficiency in an army, such as numbers, matériel, discipline, leading, physique,

It was said of him that his chief of the staff in South Africa had nothing to do but to smoke his pipe, and that if an earthquake had swallowed up the whole of his staff he probably would not have noticed it.

Yet none knew better than he how much of his success was due to his wise choice of the tools he used, and in their choice he was adamant to all suggestions from without.

Upon this implacable son of the deserts the jobbery and backstair influences of civilised communities never made a moment's impression. But woman will often rush in where man fears to tread.

The most splendid monument to Kitchener's exceptional greatness, both as a statesman and soldier, will always be his present labours for the peoples of Egypt and the Soudan.

Spoken of reverently as "El Lord" or "Kooch-Nohr," he is regarded by the masses of the people almost as a semi-divinity, such as were Seti and Rameses by the Egyptians of old. For the races of the Soudan he is a far greater one than the old Mahdi. The immense driving power of his strength of character and tireless industry is forcing a succession of far-reaching reforms through hitherto insuperable obstacles, conquering the deserts and bringing well-being and happiness to vast and increasing populations.

training, organisation, and so forth, but the great deciding factor—and those who have as much modern battlefield experience as myself will doubtless agree with me—is the capacity of the individual soldier to endure hardship, and his individual determination to win through.

Now, the German system of life and of military training is not designed to encourage individual effort, but rather to stultify it, and to reduce the individual man or unit to the state of a disciplined automaton.

An army, says "En Avant," should be as elastic as possible, and this is just what the German is not. It is entirely obedient to a rule of thumb.

To the German tactician the science of warfare is cut and dried. Officers and men alike know what they ought to do under a hundred different conditions; they learn it all by heart, and when those conditions arise they act correctly, because they know their work by heart. But supposing, as will invariably happen, other conditions arise, conditions the antidote to which has not been studied, what will happen?

Untaught to think or act for themselves, they will ransack their memories for the correct reply.

Under modern conditions of warfare the best soldier is he who knows how to "muddle through," and how to "carry on."

when in a tight place, without waiting for instructions.

The whole training of the German soldier is designed to eradicate individualism, and to reduce soldiers, battalions, regiments, and brigades to a state of iron-bound automatism. If the enemy's action could be equally reduced, then such training would be perfect, but, as things are, I maintain that it is fatal, for it entirely destroys the personal factor, and it is only the personal factor of each individual in an army which will carry that army to victory under modern conditions of warfare.

At manoeuvres, the German soldier or officer is taught to do things which he could not possibly perform if the enemy were using ball cartridge. Whole brigades of cavalry sweep down upon unbroken infantry in a most gallant fashion, and the umpires encourage the sport. It is, perhaps, "magnificent, but it is not war."

Unfortunately, though, these charges, which are not war, have carried the Germans through the French lines into France!

The lack of elasticity is not, however, the most dangerous things inside the German army. The ever-increasing propaganda of Socialism is its most insidious foe.

Search among the lower and middle classes and you will not find many men who have served their time in the army who are not Socialists.

The galling discipline to which he has had to submit during his two years in the ranks has embittered the soldier's mind against authority; the knowledge that he can be called up at any moment to rejoin the colour, and again submit to the churlish discipline that is the ruling spirit, is an ever-present obsession. He hates the idea even more than the average middle-aged Englishman would hate the idea of suddenly being sent back to school, and treated like a boy again by a set of particularly unsympathetic schoolmasters.

Now, it is these men—these reservists—who will form the major portion of the German army when it is mobilised for war. Is it likely that they will prove enthusiastic soldiers? If one may judge by the way these men hate being called up to take part in army manoeuvres, then one knows how to answer the question. Once the Socialism which is rampant in civil life in Germany finds itself incorporated in the army, I doubt if even the iron discipline of the mailed fist will rouse it to any enthusiasm to go and get killed at the bidding of a quasi-aristocratic clique of unsympathetic officers.

"En Avant" has much contempt for the German cavalry, and considers the infantryman too fat to march quickly. The campaign up to now has shown

that, as in 1870, the Prussian is a far better marcher than he was given credit for.

The German cavalry always reminds me of the leaden soldiers with which I used to play in childhood. They look simply splendid, and they are to be seen at their best when delivering an impossible charge, but the German is neither a horseman nor a horsemaster; as a scout he is beneath contempt.

The German infantryman has two great faults; he is too fat, and tries to carry too much weight on his back, with the result that he can neither march far nor fast. There is also the additional disadvantage that, like our own men, he requires a plentiful supply of food to keep him going at all. When in close formations the work of the infantry is distinctly good, and their drill is splendid, but once the men get into anything approaching open order all initiative ceases. The German infantryman lacks the dash of the French, the doggedness of the Russian, the fatalism of the Turk, or the practical adaptability of his British rival.

Victory on the battlefield is possible, says "En Avant," although it will be found that even the goods in the shop window of the Military Bubble emporium are not hall marked with the brand of super-excellence, in which we have always been led to believe, but bankruptcy at home is said to be inevitable.

The evil of the situation lies in the complicated system of credit which German trade has adopted in order to oust her rivals from the various markets she has coveted. Go anywhere in the Near or Far East, and you will find German commercial houses offering six months' credit to people an English moneylenders' tout would not trust for a day.

If Germany suddenly finds herself at war with some Great Power, the first act of each citizen will be to withdraw all available cash from the bank in order to leave his family something to live upon while he is away fighting—the German soldier is only paid 8½d. per week. The banks will have to call in their loans from the traders, and these will be unable to realise their assets. The trader who has got £100 worth of goods out on six months' credit in China or Turkey would be glad to get £10 down in cash. The traders will thus inevitably go bankrupt, and the banks, unable to get in their money, will be obliged to stop payment. Thus the depositors will be left penniless just at the moment when they are called upon to leave their homes to go out to fight for their Fatherland. It would be in keeping with human nature if they preferred to stay at home and fight for their money back!



NORMAN BROOKES MAKES ONE OF THE WINNING STROKES WHICH MADE HIM CHAMPION OF THE WORLD.

TEMPERAMENT IN TENNIS.

Mack Whelan contributes a very interesting article to *Outing*, on the influence that temperament has in the game of tennis. The court, he says, has

become an arena in which Englishmen, Frenchmen, Germans, Australasians, and, indeed, every nationality, may illustrate their personal and race differ-

ences. There is no branch of contention wherein temperament plays a more important part than in the court game, and through the wide scope of its competition, no more satisfactory opportunity to observe varying personal characteristics can be found. Although there is no place allotted to it on the scoring sheets, temperament plays a major part in tennis. Far and above the technique of the individual is his ability to master a mental attitude, which puts the burden of worry upon his opponent.

It is interesting to read this American critic's comments on the world champion—Norman Brookes. He says:

Great all-around tennis player that he is, it is the universal testimony of critics that the greatest asset which Brookes possesses is his ability to outguess opponents and make them do the worrying. The Australian in action has the most inscrutable face imaginable. There are few players who can successfully conceal their stroke plan until the moment they hit the ball; but put Brookes in a tight place where a point means a game and he can generally be depended upon, not only to conceal the direction of his attack, but to deceive his opponent into believing the ball is coming into a zone of the court far removed from the place where it actually lands. His remarkably successful career on the courts is due almost as much to his ability to read human nature as to his remarkable technical proficiency.

In 1909, when under as trying heat conditions as could have been prescribed, Brookes encountered Maurice McLaughlin, whose star had just begun to blaze upon the international tennis horizon, it was head-work and a temperament that left its possessor free from worry which won for the Australasian. Against speed such as had never been exhibited in Davis Cup play before and a brilliancy of tactics which seemed unapproachable, Brookes at first seemed outclassed. He won by placing his returns in such a way that McLaughlin, outguessed, began worrying at what seemed to be his own inexcusable stupidity. The Californian did not realise until Brookes had broken through and taken the lead that it was Brooke's eyes, not his own, which were misleading him.

Mr. Whelan says that Anthony Wilding is a person of radically different temperament.

Winner of titles on clay, wood, and turf, Wilding, on his all-around playing record, would seem to have less reason for worrying about the outcome of a match than any-

one else. Yet he is almost always under high nervous tension before a match, and confesses to a tendency to exaggerate the chances of his being beaten by an opponent. Brookes never doubts his ability to win out. He is not conceited as to his own capacity, but his nature is such that he lets the other fellow do the worrying.

Although Max Decugis is one of the finest French players he is at the mercy of his moods. Once his game slips up he is so upset and disgusted with himself that he is helpless before a clever opponent.

Stroke for stroke and on the basis of balanced tactical abilities, Decugis has every requisite for winning a world's title, but on every occasion when one of the major tennis honours has been within his grasp, the tension has keyed him so high that he has been unable to do himself justice.

Three years ago C. P. Dixon lost his match with Larned, and the Davis Cup went to America, because he was unable to accustom himself to the Yankee habit of cheering. Dixon, finding that he was not the equal of the great American in speed, changed his tactics during the match, and substituted a style of return in which the ball seemed to travel so slowly spectators marvelled how it remained in the air. Larned, however, was utterly unable to cope with the puzzling "floaters," which were marvellously placed. Larned, indeed, seemed outclassed, and it looked to be all over with the veteran, when a number of enthusiasts began to cheer him.

The impulse quickly communicated itself around the stands and in a few seconds thousands were calling on Larned for a recovery. Few of the enthusiasts so intended it, but the demonstration actually had the effect of disconcerting the British player. He had probably read of Indian war-whoops, but anything like the "rooting" of the American spectators he had never heard in his life. . . . He went to pieces then and there. Larned, playing an improved brand of tennis, won the next two games, and the match.

The American players seem to find the Australasian enthusiasm very stimulating. F. B. Alexander, proficient veteran in many fields of sport, discussing the environment of a championship tennis meeting with Mr. Whelan, said that, never in his experience, had he encountered such dynamic atmosphere as

surrounded the engagement between the American and Australasian Davis Cup contenders, at Melbourne, in 1908.

"It was electrical," says Alexander, who, with other standards of comparison, has distinct recollections of doing the pitching in Princeton-Yale and Princeton-Harvard commencement baseball games to guide him. "I have never encountered such an emotional crowd. The cheering was continuous throughout most of the matches."

Unlike Dixon, the British player, who found the American cheering so disconcerting, both Alexander and Beals C. Wright, who comprised America's delegation sent to the Antipodes in 1908, felt quite at home in the midst of the Australasian enthusiasm.

The English he considers hampered by their native instinct for conducting matters along conventional lines. Consequently, they are upset by innovation, of any kind.

One of the assets possessed by Count Salm, a young Austrian crack, who is helping to put his country on the tennis map, is an ability for providing sensational innovations. The Viennese nobleman has the sort of artistic disposition which is disconcerting to his opponents on the court. He has had notable success against the best of the English and German players, not only because of his own playing abilities, which are high, but because these opponents are constitutionally unfitted for comprehending his style.

In the French championships a few months back, Count Salm defeated F. G. Lowe, one of the leaders in British tennis. At a crucial point in the match, when after four close-fought sets the result hinged on the outcome of the fifth, the Austrian provided a theatrical interruption which was destined to win the day for him. Salm is a brilliant performer, but Lowe's steady and conservative tactics were gradually opening up a winning lead, when, at the climax of the game, Count Salm, talking alternately to himself and the spectators, suddenly rushed off the court, took a siphon of soda from the tray of an attendant, and then, in full view of the gallery, squirted it down his noble Austrian neck. Lowe, standing in shocked surprise in the other court, was petrified by the interruption. The "scene" annoyed him, and doubtless his British sense of the proprieties was outraged by a proceeding of which no mention was made in the rule book. And the Austrian, coming back much refreshed after his unconventional bath, won the fifth and the decisive set of the match by a 6-3 score.

The younger French players all strive to achieve correct form at first, and are

perfectly willing to lose any number of games, if, by dint of steady striving, they achieve a given stroke properly.

One source of satisfaction to the French is that they have very generally succeeded in besting their old rivals, the Germans, on the courts. Such representatives of the Empire as Baron von Bissing, Rahe and the Kleinschroths exemplify in their tactics the thoroughness which the Fatherland brings to bear in preparation; but so far they have failed to show the dash and daring in pinches which spells success when opponents of fairly equal technical resource have to be encountered. Decugis has won the German championship, and in his fight to the top the temperamental distinction between Gaul and Teuton has been sharply outlined. Unwavering determination and almost mathematical accuracy of stroke have proved unavailing against a stylist who, as a well-known British stylist has observed, "reflects in each movement of the racquet the verve and artistic sense of the French character."

The chief feature of the game of the capable English player is the symmetry of his playing development. Other nationalities have shown a tendency to develop in a few departments.

H. Roper-Barrett can be named as an exception, perhaps. His specialty is brains rather than strokes, and he generally gives a scintillating exhibition; but he does not represent the average in England any more than H. H. Hackett's tactics are typical of the average in America.

Mr. Whelan does not consider that the English have permanently lost the lead in tennis.

The appearance of young A. R. F. Kingscote on the horizon may well mark the beginning of a new chapter. Temperamentally the young army crack seems ideally fitted for the task of leading the way to new accomplishment. That he is a man of the type likely to rise to emergencies and subordinate style and tradition to results in pinches is indicated by the fact that early in the course of the present season, when Kingscote was not making a particularly good showing in the scoring, English veterans stepped aside and said they felt that his game nevertheless held greater promise for British success than any of the standard time-tried players could offer. In other words, England has at last recognised that the tennis standard which was good enough when only England was playing tennis is not sufficiently high in this day of worldwide competition.

MAN AND HIS PLANET.

Under this title G. H. Lepper contributes a most interesting paper to *The Empire Review*, which follows a previous contribution surveying the principal racial divisions of mankind. We extract the following tables, which are of special value, but the articles themselves are of particular interest:—

average density for the whole earth is 34 so that the White Race is in occupation of nearly 25 per cent. more than its proper share of land without taking into account its possessions in Asia and Africa, which add nearly as large an area and population to the total.

Clearly a sharp distinction must be

TABLE SHOWING APPROXIMATE DISTRIBUTION OF THE HUMAN RACE BY CONTINENTS.

Continent.	Area. sq. m'les.	Population	Number of persons per square mile.
Asia (with islands)	17,000,000	975,000,000	57
Africa (with islands)	11,500,000	137,000,000	12
North America (with islands)	8,300,000	133,000,000	16
South America (with islands)	7,625,000	53,000,000	7
Europe (with islands)	3,675,000	445,000,000	121
Australasia, etc.	3,400,000	7,000,000	2
Total	51,500,000	1,750,000,000	34

TABLE SHOWING AREA, POPULATION, AND DENSITY PER SQUARE MILE OF THE MORE IMPORTANT POLITICAL AGGREGATIONS.

Dominions.	Area. sq. miles.	Population.	Density per square Mile.
British	11,500,000	445,000,000	39
Russian	8,765,000	175,000,000	20
Latin America	8,400,000	80,000,000	10
French	4,745,000	80,000,000	17
Chinese	4,275,000	435,000,000	102
United States	3,705,000	105,000,000	28
German	1,335,000	80,000,000	60
Belgian	920,000	23,000,000	25
Portuguese	838,500	15,500,000	18
Netherlands	795,000	44,000,000	55
Italian	700,000	36,000,000	51
Turkish	445,000	23,000,000	51
Spanish	280,000	20,000,000	71
Japanese	262,000	70,000,000	267
Austro-Hungarian	201,000	50,000,000	191

The White Race (with which are included the aborigines of America and Australia, and the Maoris, who are in process of either extinction or absorption as the result of contact with the Whites) has almost unchallenged possession of four continents at the present time. As its numbers are roughly 640,000,000, and all but about 10,000,000 reside in Europe, Australasia, and the two Americas, with a combined area of about 23,000,000 square miles, the average density of population works out at rather less than 28. It will be remembered that the

drawn between those portions of the earth in which the Whites are in more or less undisputed possession, such as Europe and Australasia, or in an enormous preponderance, such as North and South America, and the regions over which they merely govern, such as the greater part of Africa and the European dominions in Asia, where the white population consists entirely of military, officials, merchants, traders, and planters. A convenient touchstone to apply in order to discover into which of these classes any given country falls is to inquire whether white labourers and

artisans can make a living within its borders without lowering their customary standard of living. If so the country can be classed as a true "White Man's Country"; if not, it is only subject to White rule by reason of the lack of military and administrative ability on the part of the subject race.

THE OLD, OLD EARTH!

The age of the world has always been a subject of much controversy, as the various methods which have been used as a basis of calculation have led to very contradictory results. In *Science Progress* Professor Joly deals with the latest calculations. He considers two distinct methods of determination: from the geological deposits and from the quantity of radioactive matter in the earth.

In the first method there are three ways of arriving at a result—viz., by (i.) the thickness of the deposits, (ii.) the mass of the deposits, and (iii.) the quantity of sodium salts in the sea. The first gives from 80 to 100 million years, the second about 87 million years, and the third from 80 to 105 million years, all results being about the same considering the extreme difficulty of obtaining reliable data on which to calculate.

Calculation from the presence of radioactive bodies is based on the fact that the bodies break down in the course of time into simpler bodies. Thus uranium and thorium, the parent bodies, break down and eventually give us lead, and the rate at which they break down is known, so that from the quantity of lead and uranium present in minerals of various ages the time taken for the lead to form can be calculated, and results varying from 370 to 11,470 millions of years have been obtained. Certain minerals containing radioactive bodies are coloured by the penetration of the radioactive products into them, the rate of the penetration can be roughly estimated, so that the degree of penetration gives the age of the mineral. This method gives about 400 million years as the age of rocks which, though old, are not the oldest by any means.

Thus the two different methods give very different results. Of course the methods are necessarily approximate, and as yet it is impossible to verify accurately the data on which they are based. Both methods are open to considerable criticism, and we must wait for further developments before any definite results can be arrived at.

In the same issue H. S. Shelton criticises strongly any attempt to employ the quantity of sodium salts in the sea in order to calculate the age of the world. He says that the reasoning on which it is based is false, and the experimental data available are so few and untrustworthy that no reliance can be placed at all on this method.

ASTRONOMY AND AGRICULTURE.

Harper's contains an informative paper by C. G. Abbot, director of the Astrophysical Observatory of the Smithsonian Institution, on "The Variable Sun," and after a full answer of his work on Mount Wilson, gives an account to the question, "Of what value is your work?" :

"In the case of the sun there are more reasons for thorough study than in the case of the stars. First of all, the sun is the only one of the stars near enough for detailed investigation. What we learn about the sun is immediately utilised to broaden our knowledge of the stars. Secondly, the sun is the controller of the system of planets of which the earth is one. Therefore we have a personal interest in him, as in a neighbour, more than in the host of other stars remote and little known. Thirdly, the sun's light and heat promote all life, both vegetable and animal, upon the earth, and have supplied or are supplying, directly or indirectly, all the great sources of power we possess. Hence in a very unusual and peculiar fashion we are interested in the study of the sun's radiation.

"It is even probable that these studies will have a money value far beyond the cost. In the Agricultural Department at Washington, and under the auspices of the Carnegie Institution, in the Desert Botanical Laboratory at

Tucson, Arizona, there are in progress investigations of the relation of the sun's radiation to the growth of plants. . . .

"We may, I believe, look for the time, within a few years, when scientific agriculturists will employ the results of study of solar radiation for the improvement of well-known useful plants. When this occurs, such investigations as we make will be appreciated not only by those who take an interest in the universe they live in, but by those whose only concern appears to be to make it gainful."

WATERLESS AND SODA LAKES.

The *Geographical Journal* includes an account of "The African Trough in the neighbourhood of the Soda Lakes" from the pen of John Parkinson. This trough, or area of depressed land, extends from Lake Nyassa, through Albert Nyanza to the Sea of Galilee. The lowest sunken ground contains the alkaline deposits of Lakes Magadi and Natron, in our protectorate of East Africa. The soda lakes are fed by hot springs, which the writer thinks are of "plutonic" origin :

The deposit, as first seen from the descending cutting of the railway, resembles a frozen lake lightly covered with snow and bordered by brown mud-flats.

From the spectacular standpoint, the view is perhaps rather disappointing; the intervening scarps and irregular nature of the country render it almost impossible to obtain a sight simultaneously of each part of the lake, which is also, as remarked before, broken up into a number of finger-shaped bays by fault-block ridges, which hide the intermediate ground.

An excellent panorama is obtained from the summit of Lorgosailch, but, unfortunately, my photographs failed to reproduce the sight I myself saw. In many places the soda is of a vivid pink colour, and commonly, though not invariably, covered by a few inches, two or three, of water, on which a thin film crystallises out, or, as I last saw it, radiating pink crystals of great beauty.

The surface when dry is broken up; a creep of the crust forces part of the layer of

soda over that adjacent to it, forming lines, or, when a gradual contraction of the whole has taken place, roughly octagonal figures. From the sides of the scarps—i.e., the main fault lines—the soda-charged springs issue, and islets of flint, orientated in accordance with the structural lines of the country, show greenish-grey above the white expanse, and denote a buried fault.

Professor J. W. Gregory, who visited Australia with the British Association, contributes an interesting paper to *The Geographical Journal* on "The Lake System of Westralia." The writer explains the peculiarity of the so-called lakes of central Westralia, which are more conspicuous on the map than they appear when standing on their shores, and their actual appearance is that of extensive salt-clay pans :—

The number of these lakes is legion, and their area often enormous. A recent enumeration of them by the West Australian Lands Department includes 190, and the list is incomplete; and the areas given show that they range from a few acres up to over 900 square miles. Many of them are unnamed, and the two largest are known only by the term "Salt Lake," which is applied locally to many of them. They have been strangely neglected in the literature of Westralian geography, in spite of their many sources of interest. Even in the daytime these lake plains have an alluring attraction with their boundless wastes of brown mud, of sheets glistening like silver owing to their encrustation of salt or gypsum, and their yellow tracts of sand and lines of sandhills. During the low light of dawn and sunset, when the land is illuminated by the vivid colours due to the spectroscopic action of the dust-charged air, the lake plains give rise to the most picturesque effects in central Westralia.

The desire to explore these lakes is enhanced by the difficulty; they are often too soft and wet to be crossed on foot, and even when they contain water they are too shallow for the use of boats.

Many theories have been presented to account for the origin of these lake-like depressions, but Professor Gregory suggests that they indicate the previous existence of an extensive river system in this now waterless land, and the map issued with the number sustains this common-sense explanation.

SOME FABLES OF HISTORY.

The work of the modern school of historians has done much to shatter the illusions of our school-days, but sentiment must yield to fact, so Professor James Westfall Thompson proceeds, in

The North American Review, to emphasise "The Mendacity of History." The list of historical lies is long, and the writer quotes some samples :—

The great fables of mediaeval history, like the legend of Pope Joan; the tale that

Gregory the Great destroyed the Palatine Library of the Caesars; the burning of the Alexandrian library by Omar; the spurious Donation of Constantine; the legend—of modern origin, singularly enough—that mediaeval Europe believed that the world would come to an end in the year 1000; the romantic story of Blondel the minstrel, and the captivity of Richard Coeur de Lion; the story that the preaching of Peter the Hermit fired Europe in the First Crusade; the legend of William Tell; the devotion of Eustache de St.-Pierre during the siege of Calais in 1347—all these beliefs have long since been disproved.

The article traces the source of the fiction wherever possible, and we quote the following extract which reverses the popular concept of the Bastille as the last home of an infamous feudalism:—

The appropriation for the care of the prisoners was most generous, and graduated according to their social scale. For example, the governor received five livres per diem for a bourgeois, fifteen for councillor of Parliament, twenty-four for a general of the army, thirty-six for a marshal of France. When Cardinal Rohan was imprisoned there for his part in the famous affair of the Diamond Necklace, the governor was allowed one hundred and twenty francs per diem for his upkeep. The very fact that such a schedule existed is proof positive as to the class of prisoners. As to the daily fare, it is safe to say there was no prison like it in Europe. Renneville, although he

disparages the Ancien Régime, admits that he had champagne and burgundy to drink, and hare and lobster to eat. Even Linguet, in spite of his wish to portray the suffering of the inmates of the Bastille, admits that the daily fare was good and abundant. Every morning the chef presented the menu to the prisoners for their approval. Finally the king clothed those prisoners who were too poor to clothe themselves, and they wore no prison uniform. We read of dressing-gowns trimmed with furs, of coloured breeches, of silk doublets, of shirts that cost more than forty francs of our money, and good linen handkerchiefs. The commissaire was officially instructed to consult the taste of each prisoner as to the colour, the cut, and the fashion preferred. The Government even furnished pocket-money and tobacco to indigent prisoners. In their rooms the prisoners used to have pets of all kinds—cats, birds, dogs—and sometimes used to get up theatrical or musical entertainments among themselves. If a prisoner was ill, he was furnished free medical attention, or could have his private physician, if he preferred. One day, when the Cardinal Dubois was examining the report of the governor, he remarked upon the unusual quantity of lavender allowed the prisoners, to which the Regent replied: "It is their sole distraction. Don't take it away from them."

This reads more like a first-class hotel with every luxury rather than the grim fortress *cum* dungeon of our early reading.

THE ABSORPTION OF MEXICO.

Writing on "The Real Mexican Problem," in *The North American Review*. Professor Usher brushes aside the diplomatic deceits of "intervention" and bluntly says: "The Indian still holds land the white man covets," for all intents and purposes the United States is already in possession of the coveted land. The writer, however, shows that this is, after all, a part of an inevitable world movement:—

"Will the westward and southward expansion of American people, so persistently and relentlessly pursued for three centuries at the expense of the red men, stop now at the Rio Grande? Will humanitarian and ethical considerations save the Indian State of Mexico long from the fate every Indian community on this continent has already experienced? Indeed, there is much ground for insisting that the peaceful penetration of Mexico is at least as much a *fait accompli* at the

present writing as was the Republic of Texas in 1844. Whatever temporary arrangement may be made at this time, whatever it is called, whether influence, protection, guidance, or intervention (certainly not conquest), the flood of American immigration will pour over Mexico, swiftly the fifteen millions of Indians will be outnumbered by fifteen and more millions of Americans, and, as in Georgia and in Oklahoma, the white men will steadily but relentlessly push the red man into the hills and deserts, and will themselves occupy the land in his stead. Unless the precedents of the past are now to be broken, the Indian problem in Mexico will not be settled by any different considerations than have dictated the treatment of the Indians already in the United States. With what face could we offer Indians in Mexico rights and privileges, citizenship, and recognition in the courts which we have steadily

denied the red man at our own door? Christianity, morality, international law, and ethics have been often invoked in the Indians' defence and as often consistently disregarded. Is it likely that

now such importance will be attached to considerations never before of weight as to spare these last red men in the face of tradition, precedent, ignorance, prejudice, and self-interest?"

IRELAND : ANCIENT AND MODERN.

Richard FitzWalter's article on "Holy Ireland" in *The British Review* may arouse some natural resentment, but a little straight talking can do no harm. The writer does not exaggerate the picture, and gives both sides in his attempt to understand Ireland and solve the "enduring riddle of the people." Reprof and regret are mingled in the writer's text:—

The Irishman has a strong pride; but it is pride that, while it does not hide from him his defects, yet makes him angry only that they should be named by others. Scamped work is no harm, only that it should be denounced as scamped. Drunkenness saps the strength and staying power of the nation, is responsible for all the Irishman's faults, lays open his flank to scoffs and slights and to the sneers under which privately he writhes. Yet will he not learn his lesson, and stop the sneers by one great act of renunciation?

There is a conspiracy of silence among Irishmen of the working and commercial classes about this devastating drink evil, pitiful to behold. In the churches week by week a devoted clergy pleads, threatens, prays: in the front benches sit the smug-faced publican, whose shops are rarely officially, and never actually, closed. The monthly cattle fair is still, in this year of grace, held in the chief streets of the town, incommoding traffic, fouling the pavements and gutters, rendering day and night hideous. Though there is a fair-field close at hand it is never used. The publican interest is too strong for that.

Mr. FitzWalter thinks a beginning might be made by cultivating a civic sense of decency and order:—

Slatternliness and sordid disorder characterise her public services. The streets of her towns are frowsy and unkempt. The aesthetic sense seems to be utterly wanting in all planning or construction of artisans' cottages in the towns or labourers' cottages in the country. Now that there are riches in the land an ugly utilitarianism has replaced the picturesqueness that co-existed with the days of poverty. Hatch has given way to galvanised zinc, which is left unpainted; banks and hedges are superseded by American wire and palings, trees are felled without regard to anything save the making of a few shillings of unearned increment. That there is money and to spare for the amelioration of the conditions of

everyday life is shown by the lavish expenditure which the farmers will readily make on pretentious and unsuitable dresses for their daughters, and by the sums they are prepared to lose to the too numerous race meetings that take place up and down the country. Ireland badly wants a refined public opinion. Such an opinion may be there, but it shrinks from attempting to make its presence felt.

The Antiquary does not concern itself with the confusion of present-day methods, and a perusal of its pages is equivalent to a holiday amid mediaeval surroundings. Cyril Hurcomb is contributing a series of articles dealing with the "The Post under the Tudors," which is full of interesting glimpses of the past. The following extract will convince the reader that Ireland was not quite settled even under the absolute Tudors:—

The disturbed condition of Ireland at the time of Tyrone's rebellion and the Spanish raid on Munster led to considerable extension of the posts westward. The posts to Plymouth were again set up in 1596 or 1597. In February 1599 the Council re-established the ordinary standing posts to Bristol and Holyhead. On August 9th, 1600, the Council instructed the Master of the Posts to lay stages between Plymouth and Falmouth at Looe, St. Austell, and Truro. They were made standing posts in December, when standing posts were also established between Bristol and Milford Haven.

On July 15th, 1600, it was decided that a second bark should attend on the Irish side under the charge of one Pepper, "a discrete and skillfull person and that hath a good barque." On October 20th, 1601, the Council thought fit, "in regarde of the late descent of the Spaniards in the Provence of Munster," to establish stages at Looe and Bodmin to Padstow and to establish a post-bark there, to cross to Ireland when necessary. On November 1st they wrote to Stanhope: "Forasmuch by the late descent of the Spaniards in the Provence of Munster new occasions fall daylie out of writing and sending to and from Her Highness' realme of Ire-

land, we have thought it expedient to require you" to lay posts from Exeter to Barnstaple and elsewhere, that "by

way of Barnstaple and other Western port letters and special affairs may be by posts speedily despatched."

THE BORDERLAND.

THE THEOSOPHIST.

The Theosophist has a report of Mrs. Besant's White Lotus Day Address. Philip Oyler writes an urgent appeal to England, and sets forth what he considers to be the only possible line for England to take if she hopes to evade the fate of Rome and other great Empires. His suggestions are very drastic, and, as the editor remarks in a footnote, few will agree with them. F. Hadland Davis writes on the Mystical Poetry of Persia, the key to which, he says, is to be found in Sufism—briefly described as the religion of love. Omar Khayyam should not be regarded as a great mystical poet, he says his God is cruel, grinding Fate. The child of joy was not in him, he had not been touched by Sufism, or any other real form of Mysticism. Lily Nightingale writes on "Some Ideas of Karma in Greek Thought," and A. J. Willson on "The Sex Question." Under Occultism, A. G. de Jongh, a Dutch mining engineer, contributes a long paper on the Valency of the Chemical Atoms.

THE OCCULT REVIEW.

The *Occult Review* contains an interesting character-sketch of Ralph Waldo Trine, by the editor. He attributes the amazing success of Trine's books to the fact that he has never appealed to any special sect or class of thinkers. He gives to the man in the street, in simple language, something that has a practical bearing on the living of his own life. Trine, he says, is not a mere theorist, but carries his theories into practice, and shows by his own life their efficiency. F.D.L., in a paper on "The Influence of Prenatal Causes in the Formation of Character," maintains that Prenatal Influences have everything to do with the formation of character. He says, "The child is born with its character already moulded, with innate likes and dislikes acquired during the foetal period, which cannot be appreciably altered

during its subsequent life. He cites many instances of the effect of the mental emotions of the mother on the physical development of the embryo, and therefore, he says, it stands to reason that they can, with equal or greater ease affect also its mental development or characteristics.

Annie Elizabeth Cheney, in an article entitled "The Fulcrum, Earth," discusses the point raised in Elsa Barker's book, "Letters from a Dead Man," namely, "that the power of the creative imagination is stronger in men wearing their earthly bodies than it is in men (spirits) who have laid off their bodies." After thinking and watching the living, the writer says she has come to the conclusion that this is so. In *Olla Podrida* the editor cites many dream incidents which have come true, also coincidences of death and disaster, which have followed picture falling, and the sitting down of thirteen to a meal. The Notes of the Month deal with Anna Kingsford, whose Life by Edward Maitland has just been republished.

THE PSYCHIC GAZETTE.

The *Psychic Gazette* starts a new feature, under the title of "Our Question Bureau," a human enquiry department. The director will be the well-known Welsh psychic, W. H. Evans, who will each month answer questions on psychic matters propounded in a spirit of earnestness and sincerity. An account is given of the opening of the Lady Lewis Institute—an institute which is based on the same ideals as those which promoted "Julia's Bureau," the account includes a message from W. T. Stead. A report is given of the trial of Charles Burton, the Birmingham palmist, under the title, "Brummagem Justice." Miss Scatcherd replies to the attacks made by Vice-Admiral Moore on the sanity of Archdeacon Colley in her fourth paper on "The Crew Crux." "J.L.," writing under the title of "Our Good

Friend, Death," states that death is becoming less and less the terror it was. As our knowledge of the "unknown" grows, so the terror of death ceases.

THE THEOSOPHICAL PATH.

In *The Theosophical Path*, F. J. Dick continues his articles on Studies in Symbolism, and deals this month with The Great Pyramid. Among the sermons in stones of prehistoric antiquity few, he says, offer the student so many fascinating lines of inquiry. Any effort to fix the date of the Pyramid is surrounded by difficulties. He gives a detailed account of how, in *The Secret Doctrine*, its approximate age has been obtained, this makes it 78,000 years old. H. T. Edge, writing on the Meaning of Life, maintains that it is only in the silence and stillness that the meaning of life is to be found. The life of our civilisation is noisy and superficial. To find the meaning of life we must seek the Real behind the Unreal—seek it in the depths of our own nature. It is impossible, he says, to define the Real—it must be experienced.

MATERIALISATION.

In *The Quest*, the Editor, Mr. G. R. S. Mead, gives a detailed account of the materialising medium, Eva C., about whom an extraordinary controversy has been raging on the Continent. Mme. Bisson has published a book on Eva, and it is in some ways the most remarkable volume that has been published on this question. The important points are that the medium has been subjected to the most searching examination before and after the seances, and that photographs were obtained of the medium while materialising.

"No other so complete photographic record of such experiments exists; and at the same time the photographing of the object from so many different points of view is a novelty. The critic is thus supplied with an ample mass of material on which to exercise his ingenuity. As these photographs at once eliminate all questions of hallucination and subjectivity, the problem reduces itself to the simple alternative of genuine phenomena or of deliberate and cunningly

contrived fraud. Apart from the nature of the objects photographed, even if their manipulation is simply contrived by conjuring, Eva must be diabolically clever and adroit, for at any moment, without warning, the electric button may be pressed, and the flashlight allow the cameras in a fraction of a second to record her every action. Moreover, in a number of photographs, we may see anxious investigators hanging on to Eva's hands and feet, and yet the appearances are registered."

The materialisation consists of a substance which issues from the medium's body and which is then formed into various shapes:—

"It appears first generally as nebulous and then condenses. It then presents the appearance of veils, tissues or webs, or of a fibrous mass, at times full of holes or with jagged edges. But if it is examined more closely, its irregular stripes and strange filamentations are, it is said, not satisfactorily to be compared with gauze, tulle or muslin; at times even it suggests the idea of the epiloön—*i.e.*, the caul or apron of intestines. It issues from various parts of the medium's body."

Of this material are formed legs and arms and faces and heads, some of these later being recognised. It is these figures which have led to the great controversy. A Mlle. Barklay, one of Eva's chief assailants, discovered that some of the photographs of these faces were almost identical with pictures which had appeared in the paper, *Le Miroir*. This identity has been questioned, but the whole affair has led to a bitter warfare between the believers in Eva and the sceptics, and no conclusion has been arrived at. He says:—

"The facts we can presumably trust always in the long run to look after themselves; but the attitude of mind that not only denies their existence when forced upon its notice, but spits in the face of the pioneers, is deplorable. Without doubt a healthy scepticism is absolutely necessary for sane progress; but an arbitrary radical scepticism that denies everything leads nowhere. What we want is a sanely critical attitude of mind."

RANDOM READINGS.

THE GERMAN NAVY IN TIME OF WAR.

Writing on the German navy in *La Revue de Paris*, Lieutenant XXX describes what use Germany would make of her navy in time of war. He certainly shows that he knows what he was writing about. If, for instance, war were declared on England, he says, they would seek to reduce the numerical superiority of the British fleet before the actual battle by means of mines laid in the North Sea, submarines and torpedo boats; in the meantime her cruisers and battleships would be lying safely in port. The mines, etc., having taken effect, the big ships would come out and deliver battle. Then, in the event of a German victory, soldiers, cannon, and horses would be transported on the mammoth liners of the Hamburg Amerika Line and on innumerable cargo boats and landed on the practically defenceless British coasts. No doubt a dangerous plan, but, thinks the writer, a very logical one.

SOCIALISM INCREASES IN EUROPE.

In *La Revue* Paul Louis, writing of the progress of Socialism in Europe, gives figures to show its increase in all European countries. This he attributes to the growth of manufactories and to the rise in the cost of living, which hits the farm labourer together with the factory hand. Socialists oppose increase of armaments, for they are against imperialism, and know that militarism in any form is irreconcilable with the social emancipation for which they are working. Added to this there is the financial crisis in Europe, to meet which all countries are resorting to new taxation, and Socialism appeals to all those who dread fresh taxation depriving them of their humble means of livelihood.

ITALY'S ACTION IN THE LEVANT.

In *La Revue de Paris*, Charles Velley, in an article on Italy's action in the Levant, describes the slow but sure measures by which Italy is gradually

acquiring influence and territory in the East. Disappointed in Northern Africa as a place to which to send her emigrants, she turns her attention to the East, where, by refusing to relinquish the islands, by her railway from Adalia to Bouldour, by her increasing commerce and her influence in Smyrna and Alexandria, she is proving herself a force to be reckoned with.

A HALF-MILLION WOMEN VOTED.

In the *Konservative Monatschrift* an anonymous writer, dealing with the Women's Movement in France, says that France has taken up the movement much more slowly than in the other countries, but now she is very much in earnest. He gives a short account of the experiment, tried by the *Journal*, of placing ballot-boxes for the women to vote in during the last election. Nobody thought the women would make use of it, but nevertheless 505,972 women recorded their votes, which far exceeded expectations.

THE POLITE POLICE OF LONDON.

When I saw a policeman put up his right hand and stand in the middle of the street, to stop the rushing crowds of vehicles, my admiration for that limb of law and order was unbounded, says J. Kong Sing, in *The Chinese Review*. Ever since I have loved London policemen. They are so fine and fat and polite. All Chinese admire fat people, for fat is a sign of prosperity and contentment and happiness. I wonder if every policeman is happy? It is said that the only way to be happy in this world is to make others happy, and policemen must make a great many people happy every day, therefore they must be the happiest body of men in England! And yet I fancy I have heard a song or quotation which says, "A policeman's lot is not a happy one." At any rate they seem to be walking encyclopaedias, guides, philosophers and friends to the public.

A TRIBUTE TO W. T. STEAD.

Writing in *The Young Man*, the editor says:—"The unveiling of the late Mr. Stead's bust at the Hague is something to dream over. For twenty years I had the honour of knowing W. T. Stead as a friend, and, despite all that I heard men say against him, I shall cherish his memory to the end of my life. He was a truly great man. Who was he as a youth? What made him great? Was he a political wire-puller, place-seeker, men-pleaser? He was none of these things. He was the advocate of the oppressed 'poor of Christ.' He was the man who went to prison for writing 'The Maiden Tribute of Modern Babylon.' He hated war. He declined rewards offered to him by the Russian and Turkish Governments. He stood alone against the world, and he went into the jaws of death amid icebergs as calmly as a child falls to sleep on its mother's breast. What is the mere acquisition of wealth to such a record? I will measure a man by what he is, not by what he has."

THE AFRICAN ELEPHANT.

The opening article in *Wild Life* is contributed by Mr. Fred Russell Roberts, who gives a deeply interesting and informative description of the African elephant. A dozen photographs of elephants taken under varying conditions are a valuable addition to the notes. The writer truly remarks that these photographs will give those who have never had the opportunity of observing big game in their wild state some idea of the country in which they are to be found, and of their appearance as they roam at large, which, as the photographs show, is very different from their appearance in menageries and zoos.

Elephants, says Mr. Roberts, are usually credited with the character of being great wanderers—here to-day, miles away to-morrow. Where water is plentiful there is no doubt they do wander a good deal, but where water is scarce, and only obtainable in cer-

tain places, they become wonderfully regular in their habits. In certain parts of Africa the country during the dry season is absolutely devoid of water except for large rivers. To these the elephants commonly come down to drink every night, and retire early in the morning, moving slowly along, feeding, resting at intervals, and going ultimately to some place where they can find shade. Although they like shade, and make for it where they can, they will spend the heat of the day standing under a tree which only gives enough shelter to keep a few of them partially cool; and during this time perhaps twenty of them will huddle together, looking very much more as if they were trying to get warm than as if they were trying to cool themselves.

Elephants have somewhat melancholy ideas of amusement. They will stand idly for hours together, flapping their ears without cessation, throwing tufts of grass or earth over their back. Sometimes two engage in a fight, probably not altogether in earnest, as it is soon over. After one or two prods at each other, one turns hurriedly in flight, uttering piercing screams, but is not pursued, and both settle down within ten yards of each other, quite comfortably.

The nearest approach to skittishness that Mr. Roberts ever observed in elephants was when he saw two babies playing. Their methods, he says, were as elephantine and ponderous as one would expect. One butted the other, which promptly fell over on its side, wagging its legs and trunk for all the world like a puppy. The other one gave it two or three friendly butts, taking plenty of time between each, and then walked away, as though feeling that its desire for frivolity had been satisfied.

Mr. Roberts concludes his paper by saying that, "fortunately, elephants are astonishingly blind; several times we went up to within twenty yards of a herd almost in open without them seeing us, but I need hardly say these were not cows with calves."

NOTABLE BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

JACK LONDON ON DRINK.

"John Barleycorn, or Alcoholic Memoirs."
By Jack London. (Mills and Boon, 6s.)

"I was five years old the first time I got drunk." Mr. London certainly began early. "My next bout with John Barleycorn occurred when I was seven." Even that must be near a record. Mr. London's confessions are a little unusual, because they relate for the most part—and the best part—to his childhood and boyhood. The book is half-way through before he gets beyond the age of seventeen. By that time he had gone through as hair-raising a list of adventures with alcohol as ever were retailed from the penitent-form. And he had other adventures, too. By the age of fifteen he was an oyster pirate in San Francisco Bay, with the Queen of the Oyster Pirates making eyes at him, so that French Frank was ready to murder him, through jealousy. On the day on which he first met the Queen of the Oyster Pirates, "there were her sister, and Mrs. Hadley, and the young oyster pirate, and the whiskered wharf-rat, all with glasses in their hands. Was I a milk-and-water sop? No, a thousand times, no, and a thousand glasses, no. I downed the tumblerful like a man."

THE PRINCE OF THE OYSTER BEDS

Mr. London's reputation increased in the Bay, and, because he was a good fellow with his money, "buying drinks like a man," he quickly earned the title, "Prince of the Oyster Beds." Moreover :

When the story went around the waterfront of how French Frank had tried to run me down with his schooner, and of how I had stood on the deck of the Razzle Dazzle, a cocked double-barrelled shotgun in my hands, steering with my feet and holding her to her course, and compelled him to put up his wheel and keep away, the waterfront decided that there was something in me despite my youth.

One night, after drinking, he stumbled overboard in Carquinez Straits, and, finding himself in the water, he resolved to stay there and

drown. But he woke up far from land four hours later, feeling very cold, and desirous of life, and made for the shore, a boat picking him up just in time.

Some time later he took part in a political parade, at the close of which the paraders were supplied with free drink in the saloons, and helped themselves to bottles of whisky :

Outside, we knocked the necks of the bottles against the concrete curbs, and drank. Now, Joe Goose and Nelson had learnt discretion with straight whisky, drunk in quantity; I hadn't. I still laboured under the misconception that one was to drink all he could get—especially when it didn't cost anything. We shared our bottles with others, and drank a good portion ourselves, while I drank most of all. And I didn't like the stuff. I drank it as I had drunk beer at five, and wine at seven. I mastered my qualms and downed it like so much medicine. And when we wanted more bottles, we went into other saloons where the free drink was flowing, and helped ourselves.

I haven't the slightest idea of how much I drank—whether it was two quarts or five. I do know that I began the orgy with half-pint draughts and with no water afterwards to wash the taste away or to dilute the whisky.

Mr. London, it will be seen, was by no means a normal drinker, or even a normal drunkard. He denies that he was ever a dipsomaniac, or that he even liked the taste of alcohol. He was normal, however, in the reasons that led him to drink to excess—the love of companionship, especially companionship with men who liked a certain boldness, and the desire not to appear less a man. He is normal, too, perhaps, in the relish with which he recalls some of his extraordinary exploits in the old days. "I remember it to-day," he says of one of them, "twenty years afterward, with a secret glow of pride."

WOMEN'S VOTES AND DRINK.

But it is not to praise strong drink Mr. London has written this book. He has written it to explain why he once voted for women's suffrage. Women,

he thinks, if they get votes, will vote for the absolute prohibition of alcohol, and so he is in favour of their enfranchisement. His belief in total prohibition is as extreme as was his earlier adventurousness on the other side.

All the no-saying and no-preaching in the world will fail to keep men, and youths growing into manhood, away from John Barleycorn when John Barleycorn is everywhere accessible, and where John Barleycorn is everywhere the connotation of manliness, and daring, and great-spiritedness.

The only rational thing for twentieth-century folk to do is to cover up the well; to make the twentieth century in truth the twentieth century, and to relegate to the nineteenth century and all the preceding centuries, the witch-burnings, the intolerances, the fetishes, and, not least among such barbarisms, John Barleycorn.

He does not believe that men of themselves would ever close the public-houses :

As well expect the morphine victims to legislate the sale of morphine out of existence.

The women know. They have paid an incalculable price of sweat and tears for man's use of alcohol. Ever jealous for the race, they will legislate for the babes of boys yet to be born; and for the babes of girls, too, for they must be the mothers, wives, and sisters of these boys.

And it will be easy. The only ones that will be hurt will be the topers and seasoned drinkers of a single generation. I am one of these, and I make solemn assurance,

based upon long traffic with John Barleycorn, that it won't hurt me very much to stop drinking when no one else drinks and when no drink is obtainable. On the other hand, the overwhelming proportion of young men are so normally non-alcoholic, that, never having had access to alcohol, they will never miss it. They will know of the saloon only in pages of history, and they will think of the saloon as a quaint old custom similar to bull-baiting, and the burning of witches.

Mr. London reinforces his plea, it should be said, not only by accounts of the drinking bouts of his boyhood, but by a description of the steps by which, in later life, he became "a seasoned drinker." His book will be read with enormous interest by thousands of people, because it is not only a most original temperance tract, but a volume of astonishing confessions. As a human document, "John Barleycorn" is disappointing. It gives us many anecdotes of drink, but it never for a moment reveals to us the soul of the drinker. It communicates nothing either of the tragedy or the comedy of the bottle, but dashes cheerfully along on the surface of things. However, as there are many more people who care for sensational sermons than for psychology, that is not likely to stand in the way of its popularity.

CLEOPATRA.*

The Life and Times of Cleopatra, Queen of Egypt. By Arthur E. P. Brome Weigall. (Blackwood. 16/- net.)

"I have loved her all my life," says Anatole France of Cleopatra, and every man who has come within the reach of her fascination says the same. There are a few women in history who thus retain the devotion of lovers for centuries after their bodies have turned to dust. For the moment I can only think of Mary Queen of Scots as a parallel, but there may be others. There may be other women of high place whose vitality of body and soul has exercised the same kind of fascination upon the living men around them, and who keep their power from one generation to another. In private life, a fortunate man

may meet one of them in a life-time—some woman endowed with a certain splendour of soul, with wit, imagination and unyielding courage; endowed besides, not with regular beauty, but with the power of passionate attraction, described as charm. She may not be exactly what is called a good woman. Of her, as of Cleopatra, the fine old criticism may hold, "How different from our dear Queen!" But, in spite of all her good qualities, we cannot expect any great writer of the future to say he has been in love with Queen Victoria all his life.

THE SERPENT OF OLD NILE.

Perhaps we are wrong in trying to set any woman of daily life or history beside that serpent of old Nile. "A lass unparalleled," remains her epitaph and brief description. After reading her story once more in Mr. Weigall's

*"Cleopatra," and "Marriage Ceremonies in Morocco," are reviewed by Henry W. Nevinson.

biography, we can only repeat, "A lass unparalleled!" Others may have possessed her powers, charm, her infinite variety; but no other woman has been granted so amazing a life for their complete expression. To be born a Greek and alien girl in the land of mummies and immemorial rites, amid pyramids and obelisks, and sphinxes and cat-headed gods—in a land like a long coffin from end to end; to know the battlefield almost from childhood; to command every luxury, and be exposed to every peril; to be beloved in turn by two rulers of the world—one, perhaps, the wisest mind the world has seen; the other, perhaps, the greatest and most attractive fool; to hold the affection of each until he died; to bear children to both, and bring them up amicably together; to be bound up with the destiny of two such men, and twice to come within touch of the supremacy of Rome; twice to lose the empire of the world, and, at fortune's latest gasp, still with undaunted heart to drag a fleet across the Isthmus, ready to seek new worlds to conquer beyond unknown seas; and then to die, "as befitted the daughter of so many kings," the asp sucking her to sleep, laid out in regal state among her dying maids, mocking her conqueror's hope of exhibiting her like a prize beast in his Triumph—unparalleled she was, alike in destiny and in soul.

"Non humiliis mulier," the Court poet of Rome was obliged to admit, when he celebrated that very Triumph, in which only her poor waxen image could be carried. "No submissive creature!" If she had submitted, who now would have said he loved her all his life?

In his estimate of Cleopatra herself, Mr. Weigall seems to get as near the truth as one can in estimating so infinite a thing as such a spirit. At first, perhaps, he is rather too familiar and patronising about the "harum-scarum girl," and throughout he insists rather too much on "the little Queen." Of course, Cleopatra must have been small, else her servant could not have shoudered her into Caesar's presence rolled up in Oriental bedding. Small and graceful she remained, but we do not want her spoken of as though she never

grew up. It was Antony who never grew up, though he was about twelve years older. We need not suppose that Cleopatra herself really delighted in the practical jokes with which she amused her colossal boy lover—the salt fish on the hook, the knocking at the doors of sleeping citizens, or even the organising of clubs called "The Inimitable Livers" (compare "The Souls" of London silliness in the early 'nineties). This sort of thing, she found, pleased a careless soldier tired of war's alarms. But she herself easily tired of Antony's boyish moods, his haphazard frivolity, and especially his habit of stifling anxiety with drink. Compared with her own moral courage, he had none. I think one of the finest recorded examples of her wit was the name she gave to a solitary house that Antony built for his lonely melancholy after the defeat at Actium. She called it the "Timonium" — "the Misanthrope's Den," "the Misogynist's Refuge," "the Anti-Suffragist's Home," or, however else we may translate it now.

MARRIAGE.

Mr. Weigall also seems to me a little too anxious to prove that Cleopatra was "strictly moral" according to modern ideas. He insists that Cæsar and Antony were her only lovers. That may be true; at all events, there is no evidence to the contrary. But he also insists that "some kind of marriage" with Cæsar was probable; and as to Antony, after their meeting at Antioch in 37 B.C., "he thinks there can be little doubt that Cleopatra and he were quietly married." Both contentions may be true, though since Cæsar and Antony had living wives in Rome, neither marriage would hold in Roman law. But there is something a little absurd in the picture of Cleopatra being quietly married. We seem to hear the verger repeating the responses, or to see the "lines" being duly signed in a registry office.

The author is rather too conjectural throughout. He is inclined to say, "Cleopatra must have thought this," or "must have done that." It is overdone, though we admit a good deal of conjecture where the authorities are so frag-

mentary and so often prejudiced. His account of Antony is an excellent piece of shrewd and vivid analysis.

To Cæsar he appears to be unjust. After one has been trained by Mommsen to regard Cæsar as the one perfect character in history, it is a shock to hear

him described as "an extremely unscrupulous man," "ready to sink to any depths of moral depravity, whether financial or otherwise," and to find him spoken of in his last and greatest years as an old man with growing tendencies to epilepsy and perverse eccentricity.

THAT OLD SHOE.

Marriage Ceremonies in Morocco. By Edward Westermarck. (Macmillan and Co., 12/- net.)

It is very unfortunate that mankind, who must in any case have a hard and uncertain time of it, should have enormously increased his difficulties and unhappiness by fictions of his own inventing. Not satisfied with the incessant labour for food and warmth, or his perpetual contests with storms, sickness, wild beasts, and beasts of his own kind, he has surrounded himself with innumerable hosts of non-existent dreams. Before he had to cast off his arboreal habits he began imagining ghosts, and it has taken uncounted ages to set him as free again from haunting terrors as the animals are. Even now there are few of us free, and the philosopher hesitates to walk under a ladder, or sit thirteen at table.

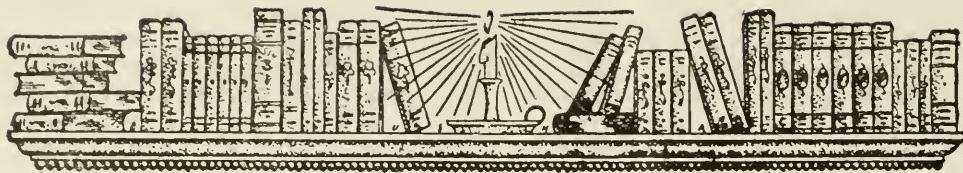
It is natural that these precautions against imaginary foes should centre round the three cardinal points of birth, marriage, and death. That a new life should appear, that two people should be able to create a third, and that life, having existed for a short time, should suddenly disappear again—these are mysteries equally inexplicable to the philosopher and the barbarian. There are moments when the influences of evil are likely to be most active, and when the most scrupulous care must be taken to thwart their power. That both they and their powers are mere figments of the brain, unhappily, makes little difference in the elaborate ritual employed to defeat them. And what is more remarkable, the ritual survives belief; it even survives knowledge of its purpose. Ask an English wedding party why they throw an old shoe after the bride and bridegroom, and not one among

them will be able to give a reason. They will say, "For luck," or "Because it's the proper thing to do," but no one will have a notion why it is lucky, or why it is the proper thing.

MAGIC IN MARRIAGE.

We might call Prof. Westermarck's new book a treatise on the old shoe. Not that he speaks of shoes alone, slippers do play a very prominent part in Moroccan ritual, not only because they are made of Morocco leather. He takes Morocco for his instance because there he found large numbers of primitive tribes living as their ancestors had lived for ages, untouched by common civilisation, and his six years' residence among them made him intimate with their ways. And he chose their marriage ceremonies as a special note to his great work on the "History of Human Marriage"—a work which placed him in the narrow front rank of modern anthropologists. Roughly speaking, the Moroccan tribes are in the main Berber by stock, though with considerable Arab admixture, and they are Moslems in religion. But their customary ritual probably dates from far beyond the Moslem invasions, and is certainly at variance with the simple unity of the highest Mohammedan teaching. Their customs have survived chiefly because of their savagery, for many parts of Morocco are still inaccessible to tourists and the other curses of Europe. And in the case of marriage the ritual has been most carefully maintained because the blood feud makes a son the most necessary of protective blessings, since, without a son, one cannot count on one's murderer being murdered.

(Continued on page 876).



The Facts of Socialism. By Jessie Wallace Hughan. (The Bodley Head. 3/6.)

Somebody has likened Socialists to the products of a famous firm of condiment makers: "There are 57 varieties of them." Miss Hughan's little text-book attempts a friendly introduction to every one of these warring creeds, recking little of the inconsistency of her proceeding. Every chapter is followed by "Suggested Readings," and "Topics for Reports and Discussions," such as "Should the Use of the Red Flag in Processions be Prohibited?" from which it would appear that this book is intended for the very young and innocent.

Ecuador. By C. R. Enoch. (Unwin. 10/6.)

This eleventh volume in the South American series describes perhaps the least known of the republics of that continent, and what proves to be one of the most interesting. Like Colombia, Peru, and Bolivia, the region of Ecuador is astonishingly diversified, the traveller from west to east coming down from Arctic altitudes through a hill country (as beautiful as famed Cashmere) to the humid jungle of the Amazon. Mr. Enoch, the well-known author of "The Pacific Slope," and other books, in a most interesting historical sketch, shows how the country he describes was of importance long before the project of the Panama Canal made its possibilities clear to the appraising eyes of investors. A wise people had evolved a State there which was, in many ways, the superior of all civilised States to-day; it was destroyed by the European savages under Pizarro. Ecuador is a land which is sure to become of greater consequence through the agency of the Canal, and there exists no better introduction to its affairs and possibilities than Mr. Enoch's new book.

Boycotts and the Labour Struggle. By Harry W. Laidler. (Lane. 6/-.)

This book deals almost exclusively with American conditions. It summarises the different species of boycott, and deals at great length with their legal aspect and treatment. The latter, the author believes, has been generally grossly unfair. Mr. Laidler believes that the legalisation of the boycott would put an end to many of its abuses; as things are, strikers are too apt to take the view that they may as well be punished for a sheep as for a lamb.

Battle Royal. By W. de Veer. (Lane. 3/6.)

This is a capable story, with a full background that adds to its effectiveness. It is not a strongly moving tale, because the persons in it remain rather shadowy, but it leaves a definite sensation. When one has read it, it leaves the impression that all happened by night and in an atmosphere reeking of Eastern flowers. It is the story of a man dogged by his fate, so that when he thought himself free and renewed he was caught again in the folly of his youth. The scene and the life described are both new to most readers—Java and the Dutch civil service—and, with a little more fineness in the shaping of character, it might have been a very good novel. As it is, it has more atmosphere than personality.

The Kaiser's Heir. (Mills and Boon. 6/.)

This book has peculiar interest at the present moment. The death of the Crown Prince has been officially reported, but lacks confirmation. The anonymous author explains in the preface that the book was written to disprove the persistent assertions of the German newspapers that the Crown Prince is still an "unbeschriebenes Blatt" or blank sheet. Whether the author has achieved his aim, each reader can determine for himself. But he certainly shows his hero as an attractive young man, simple and spontaneous and boyish, with a quite un-German whimsicality and impulsiveness. Like most books of the hero-worshipping kind, this one is profusely illustrated—the Prince as a baby, the Prince as a little boy, the Prince as a student, the Prince with a Kodak, and so on. Here is the Prince as a student at Bonn:—"He did not care for the coarse drinking and duelling habits of the place, being averse to every kind of excess. . . . The Crown Prince never took any real pleasure in what is called student-life, being more addicted to tennis, rowing, motoring and other forms of sport. In fact he was too much English in his tastes to win the sympathy of his fellow-students." That the young Prince has a strongly religious side to his nature is shown by the following odd passage from his pen: "To speak of one's religious feelings and opinions is a difficult matter. But one thing I know—I, to whom the maxim of my great ancestor, 'in my State each can seek salvation in his own fashion,' is as if spoken from my innermost soul, have never felt nearer my God than when, with

rifle on my knees, I sat in the golden dawn of the lonely hilltops or in the penetrating stillness of the evening forest. . . . These hours spent in solitary communion with Nature are alone enough to make life worth living."

The Residency. By Henry Bruce. (John Long. 3/6.)

A sequel to "The Eurasian," which novel finishes with the sending of the daughter of Sir Robert Lowell, by a native mother, to his relatives in England to be educated as an English child in an English environment. In "The Residency" we find Laura Lowell a girl of about twenty-seven, in comfortable circumstances, and as yet untouched by love. She has always had a singular craving to go to India, but has never been allowed to do so. Now her father's sister sends for her to take her place as hostess during the Aunt's compulsory residence in England. This is the background for the motif, which is to show that an Eurasian will always be Eurasian, for the unfortunate Lara, made passionate love to by the Rajah, betrays her uncle and her country. The book closes after a few short months with extraordinary rumours of the Station concerning Laura Lowell and Rajah Rao. In three months the calm, reserved English girl, who had been called the blue-eyed Saxon by Englishmen at home, had become a full-blown Eurasian.

Demosthenes and the Last Days of Greek Freedom, 384-322 B.C. By A. W. Pickard-Cambridge. (Putnam. 5/- net.)

Demosthenes, according to Mr. Pickard-Cambridge, was no gentleman, and had no sense of humour. He was also unsociable, a bitter enemy, and rather indifferent to truth. So far as we can see from his writings, he had no friendships and no affections. "So wholly was he identified with political aims," says the author, "that he almost seems to have had no private life." On the other hand, he had the genius of patriotism beyond any man of his time in Greece. In some respects he resembled Pitt. He had not a Wellington, however, to support him, and for lack of good generals his statesmanship came to nought. Every liberal reader will agree, however, that, in spite of the faults both of the Athenian people and of their generals, Demosthenes did well to try and rouse his countrymen in the cause of political liberty. At the same time, one need not agree with Mr. Pickard-Cambridge in his apparent identification of patriotism with Imperialism. His book is an interesting and valuable addition to the "Heroes of the Nations" series. It is well illustrated with portraits and photographs of places and maps.

The Two Americas. By Raphael Reys. (T. Werner Laurie. 12/6 net.)

The translation of General Reys's book on the two Americas was worth adding to

the rapidly-increasing mass of books concerning the Western continent. The ex-President of Colombia is an authority on South America, for he was exploring its then unknown tropical regions when Stanley was crossing Africa.

Hardware. By Kinton Parkes. (Unwin. 3/6.)

The progress through life from birth until the realisation of manhood of a business man and citizen of a city which is apparently made ideal by trusts. There is not a large amount of action, so that the story goes somewhat heavily, but the idea of a reformed municipality and that a merchant may be an honest man is strongly in the mind of the author.

The Judge's Chair. By Eden Phillpotts. (Murray. 3/6.)

Mr. Phillpott's natural genius is not in the direction of the short story. He can tell an anecdote admirably; but once he begins to elaborate it at all he does so not in the manner of the short story, but in the manner of the novel. We feel that these tales are really scraps from that epic of Dartmoor which possessed him in his youth, and which he has never quite succeeded in coping with. Of course, there is plenty of shrewd observation in this book, plenty of passionate love of Nature and that spirit of unwilling pessimism which is Mr. Phillpott's most characteristic trait. Yet the book opens with a mistake which no other author of Mr. Phillpott's standing could make. There is a foreword in which he introduces a great character, Tommy Canter, to whose memory he professes to owe the stories. We welcomed this as promising a certain homogeneity in the tales; and then were staggered by a sentence at the end of the "Foreword," in which Mr. Phillpotts admits that, "while setting down many in the patriarch's own language . . . occasionally, when the theme promised more satisfactory treatment in lettered prose, I have told the tale myself." The result of the admixture of Mr. Phillpott's stories and of Tommy Canter's is that the reader keeps on forgetting about Tommy altogether. The book, as a whole, is rather a disappointment, and will hardly add to its author's reputation.

Kazan. By James Oliver Curwood. (Bobbs-Merrill.)

A story of a great wolf-dog of the North, sets the blood tingling. Only one who loved dogs and knew the souls of the wild things of the forest could have written so eloquent a tale. "Kazan" goes back to live with the wolves and hunts through the long Arctic for a blind wolf-mate. But the companionship of man has touched him and he is one-quarter dog, so he understands something of the law of love and teaches it to those who know him through Mr. James Oliver Curwood's book.



GORDON RIVER, WEST COAST, TASMANIA.

TASMANIA FOR THE TOURIST.

The number of summer visitors to Tasmania has doubled within the last few years, and in the height of the season the steamer and housing accommodation is taxed to its utmost. When the "Loongana"—the fastest passenger boat in Australian waters—was built a little while back to run between Melbourne and Launceston, it was said that she was far ahead of the times, but now a sister ship is under construction, and there is no talk of likelihood of her working at below profit. Building within the State is also proceeding apace, and each year shows the available accommodation largely increased. Tasmania has at last come into her own—that is, the State is now recognised as indisputably the principal holiday resort of Australia.

THE TOURIST WELL LOOKED AFTER.

Tasmania has done little advertising; she has relied upon the repeated return of the pleased visitor, who has brought with him others, thus gradually building up a solid trade. But although money has not been spent on blazoning abroad her attractions, within the island quiet and effective work has been done by the private "Tourist Associations," which are assisted in a small

way by the Government, and which are to be found in every important centre. The stranger has simply to go to the local Tourist Bureau, and everything is done for him, and the best advice given as to how best to spent the time at disposal.

A TASMANIAN OFFICE IN MELBOURNE.

The Tasmanian Railways Commissioner (Mr. Geo. W. Smith) was quickly seized of the importance of developing the tourist business, and last year he established in Melbourne, at 59 William-street, a Tasmanian Agency, where literature can be obtained, tickets bought, seats reserved in express trains, and in various ways the traveller's convenience studied. And he placed in charge an officer who knows the island thoroughly, and who is able to give intending visitors the fullest information and advice. The bureau was no sooner opened than results were apparent, and all through the summer and until after Easter the officials had a strenuous time. Quite the busiest wharf in Melbourne near Christmas time was that from which the Union Company's and Huddard Parker Company's boats leave for Launceston, and bookings were made far ahead.

WHEN TO MAKE THE TRIP.

It is not too early to make a holiday trip to Tasmania now. This is the time when the orchards—and everyone knows that Tasmania is pre-eminent in fruit culture—are in blossom, and the "Garden State" is seen absolutely at its best. A trip up the beautiful Derwent Valley railway just now would yield a sight not seen anywhere else in Australia. Next month (October), however, the tourist season starts in earnest, with the big Agricultural Shows, for advantage is taken of the cheap trips arranged in connection with such.

Christmas is, however, the favourite time, the excursions starting on 15th



ON THE HUON ROAD.

December, and allowing of a stay till the end of January; and readers of this paragraph will be very wise to take the gentle hint that it is well to engage accommodation ahead.

TASMANIA'S SUMMER CLIMATE.

Weather is an unguarantieable article, but, generally speaking, the Tasmanian summer climate is perfect. Hot nights are unknown, and the pleasant warmth of the day time is invariably tempered by the cooling breezes from the surrounding ocean, which stretches unbroken for thousands of miles.

AN ANGLER'S PARADISE.

Devotees of the rod swear by Tasmania. Most of the many lakes and rivers are stocked with imported fish, and that there is sea-fishing galore goes without saying. Lake Leake, to mention one spot, is absolutely the finest trout fishing resort in the Commonwealth, and the catches last season were tremendous. Specimens of fish caught are on view in the Melbourne office above mentioned.



ST. COLUMBA FALLS, N.E. TASMANIA.

(Continued from page 871).

When Miss Plantagenet, of Eaton-square, marries Captain Montmorency, of the Life Guards, she escapes with nothing worse than the old shoe, and a shower of wafers. But if Moroccan tradition were suddenly adopted in the West End, consider to what laborious performances she would have to submit. When the captain's parents had approached her father through friends, and a suitable estimate of her value had been arranged, she might still, in some tribes, protest by scratching her face, and covering herself with cow-dung, so as to bring upon the marriage the evil omens of a funeral. But if she did not express her repugnance in this way, the contract would proceed, while the bridegroom's regimental friends fired off a large quantity of blank, or even ball, cartridge, to scare away the evil spirits (who cannot abide the smell of powder), and the bride's friends, when they dropped in to afternoon tea, would keep up a perpetual "quivering noise," made by a peculiar action of the tongue, and renewed at all important episodes in the prolonged days of ceremony. Its object also would be to frighten away the spirits.

MARRIAGE A LA MODE.

Some traditions would then insist upon the Captain being dressed as a woman, and Miss Plantagenet in part as a man. The object, I suppose, is to confuse the spirits, and lead them astray; but it may be connected with more mysterious purposes, like the Chinese custom of putting the husband to bed when the wife has a child. Much care is in all cases taken in cleaning a heap of wheat in the bridegroom's house. A dagger is thrust into it, and a bowl containing salt and an egg placed on the top. The dagger and salt serve to keep off spirits; the egg is a symbol of bright happiness, and silver and other white or shining things are used for the same purpose. The grit from the wheat is carefully preserved that the bridegroom, seated on the roof, may throw it at the bride, as she approaches his house, combined with dates, nuts, and other missiles. Perhaps this helps to drive away the evil

which accompanies her at this interesting crisis. There is always something terrible about a woman.

Both the bride and bridegroom submit to various washings, not for cleanliness, but to clear off the evil ones, and both are elaborately painted with the reddish-brown dye of henna. The bride is further painted with antimony, walnut, and saffron, also for protection. After his painting the bridegroom must pull up the backs of his slippers, and keep them on till the wedding is completed. He must not wash again, nor change his clothes, except that he is allowed a clean shirt during the week or so of the ceremony. The bride's father, in some tribes, selects a large ram for the feast, and the bride first rides it, giving it severe boxes on its ears to establish her influence over her husband—a pretty sight for Eaton-square! Her mother then picks out its right eye with a needle, dries it, pounds it, and mixes it with the wedding breakfast, so that the bridegroom's family may regard her daughter favourably. In other tribes the bride eats the animal's heart the same evening, to make the bridegroom love her.

But we have not room here for literally a hundredth part of the ceremonies to which the happy pair are compelled to submit—the shaving and disheveling of hair, the burning of incense, banging of guns, wearing of charms, covering of faces (the bride being often concealed in blankets, and sometimes in a box that the spirits may not see her, and that she may not shed an evil influence), the peculiar habit of both bride and bridegroom beating, smacking, or tapping each other, especially with slippers, the breaking of eggs, the passing of feet three times over the threshold, the sprinkling of milk, the striking of the bridegroom's tent, with three blows, and the plunging of daggers into the bridal bed. We have said enough to show that, troublesome and expensive as a West End wedding is, and careful though its ritual must be, the whole thing is simplicity itself compared with the rites and ceremonies required in Morocco before a man and woman can be safely made one.

Chairman is satisfaction at sixpence an ounce. To pay more is to gain nothing. To pay less is to lose much.

If the many pipe smokers who do not smoke Chairman gave it a real test they would learn a very pleasing fact to their own advantage.

It is a scientifically blended tobacco with that rare but most essential quality of coolness: a flavour that appeals to most men, and an aroma that is as pleasing to others as to the smoker himself.

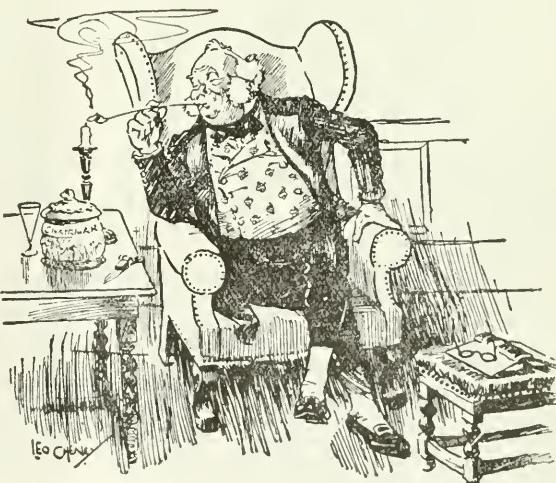
It burns smoothly and smokes sweetly and freely to the last shred—and it does not bite or burn the tongue.

These qualities sum the total of pleasure that pipe smoking can give. And they are always found in Chairman.

It is not commercially possible to produce a finer pipe mixture. No greater cost could add to its intrinsic worth, nor a lesser price provide it.

The three strengths in which it is packed meet the tastes of most smokers.

For the Australasian market Chairman is packed in $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. airtight tins in the original medium strength, and also in mild and full strengths, and is sold by all leading tobacconists at 3/- per tin.



GARDENING MONTH

Everything you need to make that garden venture of yours a success you will find here in price and pattern to suit your taste.

Without wearying you with details of items and prices, suffice it to say that our assistants are in touch with the latest and best "weapons" to attack the garden in the spring time. Just drop into our Ironmongery Department and ask, "Anything new in gardening implements?" and they will show you.

If your garden is mostly lawn, the mower's the thing to be considered, and it is false economy to get any but the best. In this department we can save you worry and money. A few leaders :

The "Dewey," 4 cutting blades, 8" driving wheels, geared both sides, 10", 12", and 14", 20/-, 22/6, 25/- each.

The "University," 4 cutting blades, 9" driving wheels, geared both sides, 12" and 14", 30/-, 32/6.

Style "K," 5 cutting blades, 10" driving wheels, 6½" cylinders, geared both sides, 14" and 16", 45/-, 50/-.

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EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS.

THE BOY AT WORK AND SCHOOL.

Boy Life and Labour. By Arnold Freeman (P. S. King and Son. 3/6 net.)

"Under existing social and industrial conditions the mass of the working-men of England are growing up to manhood incapable of discharging their duties as workers or citizens." In these words Mr. Freeman sums up the impression left on his mind by his study of the conditions of boy life and labour in Birmingham.

Mr. Freeman has carried out a most careful investigation into the conditions—social and industrial—which shape the lives of the unskilled boy worker. He has excluded from his study those entering skilled trades on the one hand, and on the other, those drifting obviously towards a life of crime. He is concerned with that large army of youthful wage-earners, roughly estimated at two-thirds of the whole, who, on leaving school, take up occupations which call for no special skill and offer no opportunities of training.

The book is of special interest to Australians because we realise more and more that the boy, deflected from his blind alley fate, is our best settler.

THE UNSKILLED BOY WORKER.

In order to obtain a fair sample of such boys, he obtained from the Juvenile Labour Exchange of Birmingham the names and addresses of every boy in his seventeenth year who had had four or more jobs since he left school. The fact that the boys registered at the

Exchange would, as he points out, exclude in general the lowest type of lad; the fact that they had worked for at least four different employers would exclude those entering a skilled trade. Eliminating those who could not be traced, the author was left with 71 boy-workers who might fairly be regarded as typical of the class under examination. Every effort was made to obtain full information about these boys. The school record was looked up, and reports obtained from the teachers. The parents were interviewed, and particulars of the home circumstances secured. The boy himself was seen, and attempts made to obtain from him "diaries of the way he spends his life and of his industrial career."

"Having discovered in this way what were the main influences in the boys' lives, I made a first hand study of each of these, including boys' clubs, picture palaces, music-halls, football matches, cheap literature, and the conditions under which boys do their work."

The earlier chapters contain in detail the records of these 71 lives. They form very human documents; we watch the aimless drift into work from school, and the yet more aimless drift from job to job; we note in each the unap-peased desire to find in some form of amusement an escape from the monoto-ny of work and the cramped confine-ment of the home; and we see the romance of youth seeking satisfaction, not in life's ordered career, but in some

pictured distortion or extravagance of its course. And regarding these things, and remembering that they concern some two-thirds of the boy population, we realise that we are looking at our citizens in the making, and that the making is not good.

WASTE.

Of the 71 boys, 6 may hope to find a place in the ranks of skilled labour, 44 are destined for unskilled, while 21 are on the way to become unemployable. With regard to the 21, their fate is due in part to physical defects, once probably curable but now past remedy, and in part to a steady deterioration of character. Of the 44 the evil lies not in the fact that they become unskilled labourers, but that their unskilled labour is inefficient. The author points out, what is too often forgotten, that we have to take industry as it is with its existing proportion of skilled to unskilled workers. It is useless to multiply entrants to skilled trades above the demands of the market. What we may do and do not do is to take these skilled and unskilled in their appropriate numbers and render them each fit for their work and fit for life.

Everywhere as things now are is waste. There is the complete waste as regards those who become unemployable; there is the partial waste of those who, escaping this fate, become inefficient unskilled workers. "Their inefficiency acts as a clog upon every wheel of industry. And they themselves are condemned by it to lives of abhorrent poverty from which nothing but their own improvement can give them power to emerge."

REMEDIES.

Looking at the causes which have led to this result, as they are traced by the author in the individual lives, there is one fact that stands out pre-eminent. These causes are in the main of a negative character, and the evils are evils of omission. As regards the home there is little positively bad; on the other hand, there is equally little effectively good; the home influence is negative. Of the

social conditions the same may be said; there is nothing positively bad about the picture palace, the music hall, the sensational literature, and the football cup ties; but they all lack anything of an educative character. Industry repeats the same story; apart from the long hours and in a few occupations the character of the work, it is the negative element that is conspicuous—the absence of discipline and the absence of training.

This fact makes remedy more possible. In connection with any organisation it is easier to add than to subtract. The author advocates proposals repeatedly made and still waiting to be carried into effect. There must be an absence of wage-earning and whole-time education until the age of 15 is reached; between 15 and 18 there must be a limitation of hours to a maximum of 30 hours a week, and during these years there must be compulsory continued education. In regard to this last, Mr. Freeman has some useful sections on the training of those destined to become unskilled workers.

The scheme of reform seeks in the main to add influences for good which do not now exist rather than to subtract influences for evil which are now in operation. It should not, therefore, require a great effort to secure the necessary legislation. But the times are not times of good hope. For years the problem of boy-labour and its evils have been before the public, and nothing has been done. The child-slavery of the half-time system still remains, and the long hours of the youthful worker are regarded with equanimity by those who shed tears over the long but yet far shorter hours of the agricultural labourer.

Mr. Freeman's book is opportune. Once more it flings the subject down as a challenge to the politician. Its clearness, its detailed studies, its admirable summary of cause and effect, and above all its deep human interest may well exert an influence, but, as things are, the hope would seem to be greater than the expectancy.



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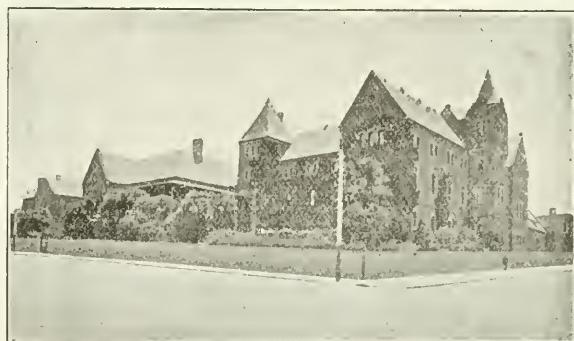
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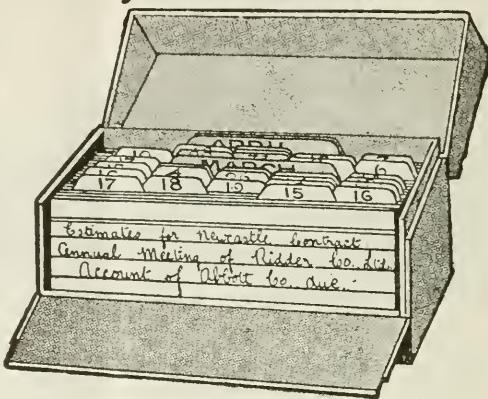
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FINANCIAL AND BUSINESS QUARTER.

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SARGENTS LIMITED.

In the face of higher wages awards and the increased cost of provisions, the rise of £1116 in this company's net profits to £10,529 during the June, 1914, half-year must certainly be reassuring to the shareholders, especially as the directors have, from time to time, warned their co-proprietors that these factors were likely to reduce the earnings. So far, they have not done so, for since December, 1911, the net trading profits have been steadily rising. But they have weakened the proportionate earning power. In December, 1912, out of gross profits of £55,000, the net trading gain was £8128, nearly 14.7 per cent., whereas in the June, 1914, though the gross profits were £77,500, the net earnings were only about £10,528, that is 13.6 per cent., about 1 per cent. lower.

* * *

The improving profit has not induced the directors to raise the dividend above the usual 10 per cent. per annum. In this they are wise, for the published reserves, though now nearly £37,800, are still about £7200 short of the goodwill of £45,000. Until that goodwill is wholly provided for by reserves, any increase in the dividend would be unwise. The present policy should not be weakened for by its observance there usually remains quite a reasonable sum, in this case over £5500 to add to the reserves after meeting the half-yearly dividend charge of £5000.

* * *

Apart from the goodwill, the company has now over £137,000 in tangible assets. The bulk of it is in furniture, plant, etc., £48,000, leasehold premises £20,000 and stock £8800, assets whose conservative valuation is imperative. In this regard, however, the directors say that ample provision has been made for depreciation which is, after all, as much assurance as the shareholders can reasonably expect.

The company's business has grown considerably during the half-year; mainly, no doubt, because of the railway refreshment rooms, the lease of which was secured as from January 1, 1914. The Marine Cafe, at Circular Quay, too, was another valuable acquisition, while two other premises were opened. These new branches probably accounted for most of the record increase of over £12,700 in the gross profits to £77,500. The directors, moreover, have found it necessary to add to their ovens and machinery to cope with the increased turnover. This, with a refrigerating plant, and, presumably, the outfit for the new cafes, caused most of the addition of £6800 in the furniture, plant, machinery, etc., asset to £48,000. It is possible that the outlay will not end here, for the nominal capital has recently been increased from £100,000 to £200,000, suggesting that the directors may have in view fresh capital issues to provide money for further extensions.

* * *

Apart from the mortgage already mentioned, the sundry creditors of £39,600 (£33,966 in December), are the only liabilities. Allowing for these, the surplus assets are £92,770, securing the paid-up capital of £100,000, and reserves of £37,770, less goodwill of £45,000. This is about 18s. 6d. per £1 share fully paid. Before the Stock Exchange closed, the shares were selling at 27s. 6d., which includes about 9s. per share for goodwill. It may be that there are some shareholders who may now feel inclined to accept a lower price. But it would be foolish of anyone to do so merely because of the war. The earnings may fall off, but there is no reason to assume that the company's financial position will be affected. The best thing for every shareholder to do is to remain calm and to await with patience the return to normal conditions.

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The recovery of this company's profits in the June, 1914, half-year is decidedly satisfactory. When the December, 1913, report was published, the results shown were rather discomforting. The net profits of £7110 admitted were over £5700 less than those of June, 1913, and were moreover the lowest for several years. There was, however, this reassuring feature. The directors attributed the lower profit to the New Zealand shipping strike and the small-pox scare. Both being non-recurring factors, there was good reason to hope that the June, 1914, half-year would show a solid improvement. That hope has been fully justified. The net profit, after providing for depreciation and an addition of about £1500 to the insurance fund, was nearly £12,300, the largest profit admitted with the exceptions of £12,990 in December, 1912, and £12,850 in June, 1913.

* * *

This result is all the more gratifying because the past six months were not free from disturbing influences. There was a strike of ironworkers early in the half-year, which caused great dislocation and loss of trade while it lasted. Apart from this, however, the period was a busy one. Several satisfactory contracts, both in construction work and in repairs, were undertaken. The new iron foundry, which is to be equipped with modern appliances, was pushed on as rapidly as possible. Steady progress was also made with the various Government contracts in hand. A further contract was settled to extend the Woolwich dock to 850 feet. This will enable the company to dock the largest vessels coming to this port, and to accommodate, at the same time, two vessels of 7000 tons each.

* * *

Unfortunately, all this progress must, in a measure, be checked by the outbreak of war, and much of the benefit of the past half-year's work may be lost. Still, the shareholders will, no doubt, view the situation calmly. It is quite possible that the profits may, for a time, show a falling off, and the divi-

dend rate, at present 6 per cent. per annum, may be reduced. Still, the directors have now in hand over £13,000 in the profit and loss account, which may perhaps be drawn upon to assist in paying dividends. Whatever happens the shareholders should be patient. Their dividends may fall away, but the security of their investment will not be injured, for the war can scarcely do more than affect the company's earning power. It cannot touch its solvency.

* * *

The manner of showing the accounts prevents one noting the outlay during the half-year on property and plant apart from the additions to the stocks, for these are all grouped in one total (less depreciation), £430,800. This is nearly £14,000 above the December, 1913, figure which sum has been in part drawn from the sundry debtors, bank, etc., which item has dropped by £6900 to £84,200. The remaining funds were supplied by the current profits, and also by an increase of £2300 in the sundry creditors to about £11,600. There was, of course, no change in the other liability, that of £122,200 to the debenture holders.

* * *

The reserves of the company are now over £72,000, which, while the capital of £300,000 in fully paid £1 shares is secured by the surplus assets necessarily depends on the accurate valuation of the main assets. On this point the report says little, beyond stating that depreciation for bad and doubtful debts and contingencies have been provided for, and that the plant, machinery and appliances have been maintained in good order. It might be thought from the low price of 18s. (when the Exchange closed on August 1), compared with the assets value per share of 25s. that the investment market had some doubt on this point. But this is scarcely the true reason. Rather is it due to the low dividend rate of 6 per cent. per annum, at which the yield is only £6 13s. 4d. per cent., which is, presumably, as low as the investor feels inclined to accept.

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THE OVER SEAS CLUB.



Mr. Evelyn Wrench writes that Over Sea Club matters are making excellent progress at headquarters. Subscribing members are coming in slowly, but the Organiser is confident that he will soon have the 10,000 total needed to put the London premises on a sound footing. Every member of the Club in Australasia ought to endeavour to support the London headquarters, for although he, personally, may not get any direct benefit, his fellow clubmen who do visit the home land will be grateful for the bon camaraderie amongst all members which make London premises possible. The "Times Weekly" is now devoting two columns every week to the Over Seas cause. This is good news, as the "Times" has an immense influence, especially amongst the leaders of thought and action, throughout the whole Empire.

New Zealand.—Mr. Macfie, the Hon. Dominion Secretary, sends a full report of the annual meeting held at the town hall, Wellington. The Mayor, Mr. J. P. Luke, presided. The report was read and adopted. It emphasised very strongly the fact that there never was a more pressing need for one great Society, such as the Over Seas, formed with the definite object of keeping British subjects in touch with one another. The council impressed on members the need of giving the movement active support, and of helping the council and branches to do still better work in the future. The Oamaru branch suggested that it be a recommendation to the conference that the General Committee be asked to consider the advisability of arranging for a series of kinematograph pictures illustrating the greatness of the Empire in its component parts, such pictures to be placed at the disposal of the various branches in rotation for education purposes, especially amongst the children, and to be shown on a special occasion. The motion is to be forwarded to the Central (London) Committee. It was decided that the branches in the

four principal centres should establish club rooms, and that they should hold Over Seas Club luncheons on the lines of those given by the New Zealand Club. An expression of the thanks of His Majesty the King for the messages of loyal greetings sent by the Club was duly conveyed to the meeting by command. Mr. J. P. Luke was elected President, Mr. A. M. Myers, M.P., and Mr. H. Holland (Mayor of Christchurch), Vice-Presidents. Mr. J. K. Macfie was re-elected Secretary, and becomes acting treasurer pro tem. All the acting delegates were re-elected.

Dunedin.—Mr. Macfie reports that the Dunedin branch is actively helping with the funds being raised for the expeditionary force, and the local executive is issuing a strong appeal to members to assist the fund. The first object of the Club—"To help one another"—is now being given most practical expression to.

Wagga Wagga.—Mrs. E. Foot, Hon. Secretary, reports that at the meeting of the Club on 10th August, it was decided to hold a concert in aid of the War Relief Fund. The subject under discussion during the evening was "How to Popularise Compulsory Military Training." The Secretary and Treasurer (Mr. Purnell) resigned, his announcement being received with great regret, as he has done excellent work during the last year.

The war has interrupted the sending of reports from the different branches, but, undoubtedly, the members are all doing their best to help on the many funds started for relief and comfort. The article in this number about the work of the Red Cross Society should be of special interest to members, all of whom can, "and they would," help the soldiers wounded on the field of battle, by aiding Lady Helen Munro Ferguson and those with her to raise funds and obtain supplies for the Society.

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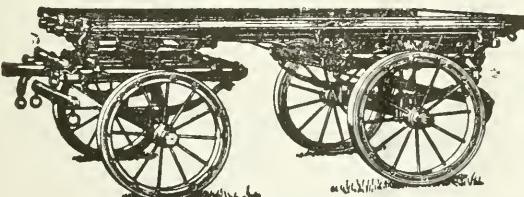
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At the opening of all meetings of the Over Seas' Club, the Club's motto—as above—is sung to the tune of the Old Hundredth.

MEMBERS' CREED.

Believing the British Empire to stand for justice, freedom, order and good government, we, as citizens of the greatest Empire in the world, pledge ourselves to maintain the heritage handed down to us by our fathers.

OBJECTS.

1. To help one another.
2. To render individual service to our Empire, if need be to bear arms.
3. To insist on the vital necessity to the Empire of British supremacy on the sea.
4. To draw together in the bond of comradeship the peoples now living under the folds of the British flag.

The Over Seas' Club is strictly non-party, non-sectarian, and recognises no distinction of class. Its members reside in all parts of the world *outside* the United Kingdom. Membership is open to any British subject, British-born or naturalised.

Information concerning the Over Seas Club can be obtained from the following :—

Australia: Victoria.—Rev. Tregarthen, Empire Arcade, Flinders-street, Melbourne.

Queensland.—Sidney Austen (Hon. State Secretary), Toowoomba.

South Australia.—A. E. Davey, Currie-street, Adelaide.

Tasmania.—H. T. Gould, J.P., 94 Elizabeth-street, Hobart.

New Zealand.—J. K. Macfie (Hon. Dominion Secretary), 79 Castle-street, Dunedin.

Fiji.—A. J. Armstrong, Native Office, Suva, Fiji.

Canada; Ontario.—Miss O. I. Ward, The Rochdale, 320 Cooper-street, Ottawa.

Manitoba.—R. J. McOnie, 1003 McArthur Building, Winnipeg, Man.

Saskatchewan.—E. A. Matthews, P.O. Box 1629, Saskatoon.

Alberta.—E. Livesay, 832 Ottawa-avenue, Edmonton.

British Columbia.—W. Blackmore, "The Week," Victoria.

Nova Scotia.—H. Howe, P.O. Box 370, Halifax.

South Africa: Natal.—W. A. Coates, 230 Church-street, Pietermaritzburg.

Transvaal.—W. Crofton Forbes, Director of Prisons Office, Pretoria.

Cape Province.—Ernest G. Lawton, P.O. Box 996, Capetown.

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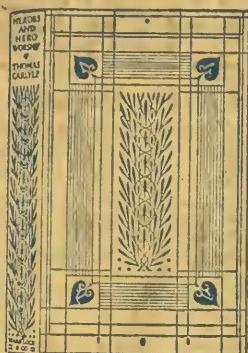
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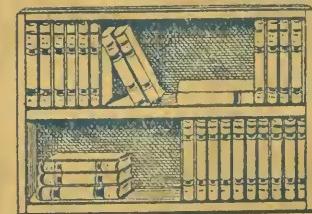
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